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PARALLEL GRAMMAR SERIES

EDITED BY

E. A. SONNENSCHIN, D.LITT., OXON.

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ADVANCED ENGLISH SYNTAX



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"Without pretending to have examined it in every clause, we venture to pronounce this a very good book. It deals in a common-sense manner with the intricacies of Syntax, and makes one feel that grammar is not quite the arbitrary thing it appears to be in the hands of some compilers of text-books. The type and page are pleasant and clear, and the tables of analysis are roomy enough to be comprehensible. In short the book is attractive—an immense point, or perhaps we should say a point of immense importance."—*Spectator*.

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LONDON: SWAN SONNENSCHN & CO. LTD., 25 HIGH ST., BLOOMSBURY, W.C.

PARALLEL GRAMMAR SERIES

AN  
ADVANCED ENGLISH  
SYNTAX

*BASED ON THE PRINCIPLES AND REQUIREMENTS  
OF THE GRAMMATICAL SOCIETY*

BY

C. T. ONIONS, M. A. Lond.,

OF THE STAFF OF THE OXFORD ENGLISH DICTIONARY.



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## PREFACE

THE object of this short treatise is to present the main facts of current English syntax in a systematic form in accordance with the principles of the Parallel Grammar Series. The introduction (pp. 1-27) is designed to provide a full scheme of sentence analysis. The rest of the book—the syntax proper—is arranged, as in the other grammars of this series, in two parts. Part I (pp. 28-86) contains a treatment of syntactical phenomena based on the analysis of sentences. Part II (pp. 87-153) classifies the uses of forms. Cross references indicate how the two parts of syntax supplement one another. In pp. 153-158 some elementary principles of hypotaxis and parataxis are enunciated.

While dealing mainly with the language of the present day, I have endeavoured to make the book of use to the student of early modern English by giving an account of some notable archaic and obsolete constructions. Historical matter has been introduced wherever it was considered necessary for the understanding of important points in syntax-development or seemed to add interest to the treatment of particular constructions.

Of the existing grammars which I have consulted, Dr. Sweet's has proved the most enlightening and suggestive.

My connexion with the *Oxford English Dictionary* has given

me facilities for research which I should otherwise not have had, and I wish to thank the editors of that work for the assistance which they have, directly or indirectly, afforded me in my task.

To Dr. Henry Bradley I am especially indebted for valuable suggestions and emendations, in both the manuscript and the proof stages of the book.

To Dr. Sonnenschein, the editor of the series and my former professor, I am grateful for his constant help and stimulating criticism throughout my work.

C. T. ONIONS.

OXFORD,

10th September, 1903.

NOTE TO SECOND EDITION.—In the new edition a few misprints have been corrected and a table of contents added. But otherwise there are no changes.

C. T. O.

NOTE TO THIRD EDITION:—A few corrections and additions have been made for this edition, but otherwise the book remains unchanged.

It having come to my knowledge that the title of this grammar has been misunderstood by some foreign students, I take this opportunity of stating that "Advanced" refers only to the place of the book in the Parallel Grammar Series and is not intended to describe the method adopted in it.

C. T. O.

November, 1910.

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### *THE THREE PERIODS OF ENGLISH.*

**Old English** (abbreviated O.E.), down to about A.D. 1150. Period of full vowels in the endings; *e.g.*, *faran*, *sunu*, *wulfas*.

**Middle English** (abbreviated M.E.), from about A.D. 1150 to about A.D. 1500. The full vowels in the endings are represented by one uniform unaccented *e*; *e.g.*, *faræn*, *sune*, *wolves*.

**Modern English** (abbreviated Mod. E.), from about A.D. 1500 to the present day. The unaccented *e* in the endings has become silent, and has in many cases disappeared from the written word.

# INTRODUCTION TO SYNTAX.\*

## ANALYSIS OF SENTENCES.

Speech is made up of Sentences.

A **Sentence** [Latin *sententia* 'meaning'] is a group of words, or in some cases a single word, which makes—

- either (i.) a **Statement**: *e.g.* I am an Englishman.
- or (ii.) a **Command** or an **Expression of Wish**:  
*e.g.* Speak.
- or (iii.) a **Question**: *e.g.* How do you do?
- or (iv.) an **Exclamation**: *e.g.* How it thunders!

Compare §§ 38-45.

Comparatively few single words can make a sentence in English: 'house,' 'runs,' 'virtue,' 'he,' 'speaking,' are not sentences. Even a group of words does not always form a sentence: *e.g.* 'mountains of gold,' 'written upon stone,' 'to be or not to be.'

'Yes' and 'No' may be called Sentence-words; they are words *equivalent* to sentences; *e.g.* 'Will you come?'—'Yes.' (= I will come.) Other words which may be equivalent to sentences will be mentioned below.

**Analysis** means *breaking up* [Greek *ana* 'up' and *lysis* 'breaking'], and is the name given to the process of breaking up a sentence into its parts. On pp. 4 to 27 it will be shown how to *analyse* sentences.

There are sentences in English and other languages which it is very difficult, or impossible, to analyse grammatically. But analysis may be applied to the majority of sentences; and without it we should be unable to recognise the peculiarities even of those sentences which cannot be analysed.

---

\* The marginal numeration of sections, corresponding to that of other grammars in this series, begins on p. 6. The marginal numbers 1, 2, 3, etc., of this book correspond to numbers 301, 302, 303, etc., of the Latin, Greek, French and German Grammars; the corresponding place in the latter may always be found (in Part I.) by adding 300 to the number given in this book.

The first stage in the analysis of a sentence is into :—

1. The **Subject**.      2. The **Predicate**.

The **Subject** denotes **the person or thing about which something is said** by means of the Predicate.

The **Predicate** is **what is said** about the person or thing denoted by the Subject.

In the following examples of sentences the part printed in ordinary type is the Subject; the part printed in italics is the Predicate.

Ducks *swim*.      Who *knows*?      *Be it so*.  
 Who *goes there*?      *Consent* thou *not*.  
 A terrible accident *has happened*.  
 The few *are happy*.      *Long live* the King!  
 Can honour's voice *provoke the silent dust*?  
*Listen*.      } (The Subject 'thou' or 'you' is not  
*Do not go*.      } expressed.)  
*Sing we merrily unto God our strength*.  
*How beautiful* she *looks*!  
 Fools *step in where angels fear to tread*.  
*Uneasy lies* the head that wears a crown.  
 He *laughs best* who laughs last.  
 Whatever is, *is right*.

Some sentences omit some part or parts which are necessary to the full form of a sentence. These are called *elliptical* sentences, and an *ellipsis* is said to occur. Ellipsis plays a great part in English. In poetical and rhetorical language it often lends dignity and impressiveness, with something of an archaic flavour; to colloquial speech it gives precision and brevity, and saves time and trouble.

#### EXAMPLES.

The prayer is said, the service read. (Supply 'is.')

To err is human, to forgive divine. (Supply 'is.')

This house to be let or sold.

Hence, loathed melancholy! (*i.e.* Depart hence.)

Shame on the false Etruscan! (Supply some verb like 'alight.')

Sweet to the morning traveller

The song amid the sky. (Supply 'is.')

Well done! (= It is well done.)

Well roared, Lion: well run, Thisbe.—SHAKSPERE.

My beauty is as boundless as the sea,  
 My love as deep. (*i.e.* is as deep as the sea.)  
 O, that such deceit should steal such gentle shapes!  
 (= O, to think that . . .)  
 To arms! to arms! (= Betake yourselves to arms.)  
 Thank you. (= I thank you: *cf.* German *danke*.)  
 Your name and address, please. (= Give me your name.)  
 So much for the sun. What about the stars?  
 (= So much is sufficient for our treatment of the sun.  
 What shall we say about the stars?)  
 What if he dies? (= What will happen *or* what  
 will you say, if he dies?)  
 I could, but I won't. (*i.e.* do it.)  
 (At the railway booking-office.) Oxford, third single.

Ellipsis is very common in answers where the complete form of the answer reflects that of the question and is therefore sufficiently well known not to require full expression.

## EXAMPLES.

Who did it?—I. (*i.e.* did it.)  
 How many were killed?—Twenty. (*i.e.* were killed.)  
 Have you ever been abroad?—Never. (*i.e.* have I been  
 abroad.)  
 We will send somebody.—Whom? When? Where to?  
 (*i.e.* will you send?)

Similarly with all interrogative words.

Numerals are used in many kinds of elliptical constructions, *e.g.* a child of *five* [years of age], at half-past *four* [o'clock], the *first* [day] of April, a *tenth* [part] of a pound, a carriage and *six* [horses]: (*cf.* a carriage and *pair* = a pair of horses.)

Single words like 'Good!' 'Right!' 'Nonsense!' 'Really?' 'Certainly,' 'Granted,' 'True,' 'Quick!' 'Peace!' 'Enough!' are often equivalent to sentences. *Cf.* *Good-bye* = God be with you.

Instances like the following, where a verb of motion is omitted, belong to older stages of the language:

I must to Coventry.—SHAKSPERE, *Richard II.*

He to England shall along with you.—*Hamlet.*

I shall no more to sea.—*Tempest.*

I wyll to morowe to the cowrte of Kyng Arthur.—MALORY.

This idiom is found in Old English:  *Ic tō sæ wille* = 'I to sea will [g].'  
 Compare the modern: 'Are you for London?'

## 1 Forms of the Predicate.

The kernel of the Predicate is the Verb.

The Predicate may consist of—

1. The verb alone.
2. The verb together with some other part, or parts, of the Sentence.

Sentences are classified for purpose of Analysis according to the form of the Predicate, which may assume *five* principal forms.

### FIRST FORM OF THE PREDICATE.

<i>SUBJECT</i>	<i>PREDICATE</i>
Day	dawns
He	died
My hour	is come
The shades of night	were falling


In such sentences the Predicate consists of the **Verb alone**.

## 2

### SECOND FORM OF THE PREDICATE.

<i>SUBJECT</i>	<i>PREDICATE</i>	
	<i>Verb</i>	<i>Predicate Adjective or Predicate Noun or Predicate Pronoun</i>
Croesus	was	rich <i>or</i> a king
Many	lay	dead
I	am	he
He	became	mad
Seeing	is	believing
To err	is	human

In such sentences the Predicate consists of (1) a **Verb**, and (2) a **Predicate Adjective, Predicate Noun, or Predicate Pronoun**, *i.e.* an Adjective, Noun, or Pronoun *predicated of the Subject*.

 For the kinds of verbs which may be used in a Predicate of the Second Form, see § 24.

OBS. 1. In a sentence like 'It is hard to do right,' the Pronoun *it* is called the **Formal Subject**, because, although it is a Subject in *form*, it only anticipates or provisionally represents the real Subject, which follows. Thus we have a Predicate of the Second Form :

To do right | is | hard.  
(It)

For the relation between this *it* and the *it* which forms the Subject of Impersonal Verbs, see § 194.

OBS. 2. In sentences like 'There was peace,' 'there was' = 'existed,' and we have a Predicate of the First Form containing an Adjunct (§ 7):

Peace | was (*Verb*) there (*Adjunct*, § 7).

## 3

## THIRD FORM OF THE PREDICATE.

SUBJECT	PREDICATE	
	<i>Verb</i>	<i>Object</i>
Cats	catch	mice
The sea	hath	its pearls
Many hands	make	light work
Nobody	wishes	to know
He	can (§ 30)	tell

In such sentences the Predicate consists of (1) a **Verb**, and (2) an **Object**, which denotes the person or thing to which the action of the Verb 'passes over.'

Verbs which take an Object are called **transitive** [= 'passing over,' Latin *transire* 'to pass over']. Verbs which do not take an Object are called **intransitive** [= 'not passing over'].

**NOTE** *Cognate Object*: see § 26.

When a sentence with a Predicate of the 3rd Form is thrown into the Passive construction, we get a sentence with a Predicate of the 1st Form containing an Adjunct (§ 7); e.g. 'Cain killed Abel' becomes:—

SUBJECT	PREDICATE
Abel	was killed ( <i>Verb</i> ) by Cain ( <i>Adjunct</i> )

## 4

## FOURTH FORM OF THE PREDICATE.

SUBJECT	PREDICATE		
	<i>Verb</i>	<i>Two Objects</i>	
We	taught	the dog	tricks
I	ask	you	this question
Conscience	bids	me	speak

In such sentences the Predicate consists of (1) a **Verb**, and (2) **Two Objects**.

For the kinds of Verbs which may be used in a Predicate of the Fourth Form, see § 31.

OBS. 1.—A sentence like 'I gave **him** the money' may be regarded in two ways:

- (a) In form, it is like 'We ask you this' or 'I asked him a question'; hence *him*, which is historically a Dative, is often called an Object (**Indirect Object**).
- (b) In meaning, the sentence is equivalent to 'I gave the money **to him**,' which is most simply parsed as containing an Adjunct (§ 7).

OBS. 2.—When a sentence with a Predicate of the 4th Form is thrown into the Passive construction, we get a sentence with a Predicate of the 3rd Form containing an Adjunct (§ 7): e.g. 'You ask me my opinion,' 'I told him to speak,' become—

SUBJECT	PREDICATE		
	Verb	Object	Adjunct
I	am asked	my opinion	by you
He	was told	to speak	by me

OBS. 3.—Sentences like ‘We bade *him speak*’ (Infinitive) may also be analysed as containing a Predicate of the 3rd Form (Subject *We*, Verb *bade*, Object *him speak* = *that he should speak*).

5

FIFTH FORM OF THE PREDICATE.

SUBJECT	PREDICATE		
	Verb	Object	Predicate Adjective or Predicate Noun
Nothing	makes	a Stoic	angry
People	called	Duns Scotus	the Subtle Doctor
They	elected	him	Consul
He	counted	himself	a happy man
It	drove	him	mad

In such sentences the Predicate consists of (1) a **Verb**, (2) an **Object**, and (3) a **Predicate Adjective** or **Predicate Noun**, *i.e.* an Adjective or Noun *predicated of the Object*.

☞ For the kinds of verbs used in a Predicate of the 5th Form, see §§ 34-5.

OBS.—When a sentence with a Predicate of the 5th Form is thrown into the Passive construction, we get a sentence with a Predicate of the 2nd Form containing an Adjunct (§ 7), *e.g.* ‘The Court declared him a traitor’ becomes:—

SUBJECT	PREDICATE		
	Verb	Predicate Adj. or Noun	Adjunct
He	was declared	a traitor	by the Court



## 6 Attributes.

A Noun may be **qualified** by an Adjective (or Adjective-equivalent: § 10); *e.g.* *Dear* friends. *A good* man. *My* father. *Ten* men.

Such a qualifying part of a sentence is called an **Attribute**.

## 7 Adjuncts.

A Verb, an Adjective, or an Adverb may be **qualified** by an Adverb (or Adverb-equivalent: § 11); *e.g.* Fight *bravely*. He is *quite* happy. We work *most* diligently. *Well* begun is *half* done.

Such a qualifying part of a sentence is called an **Adjunct**. For instances in the various Forms of the Predicate, see § 15a. 1.

## 8 Equivalents.

The Noun, the Adjective, and the Adverb may be replaced by other parts of speech doing the same work in the sentence, or by a group of words doing the work of a single part of speech.

A word or group of words which replaces a Noun, an Adjective, or an Adverb is called an **Equivalent** (Noun-equivalent, Adjective-equivalent, or Adverb-equivalent).

A group of words forming an Equivalent and not having a Subject and Predicate of its own is called a **Phrase**. Cf. §§ 10 (5), 11 (1).

A group of words forming an Equivalent and having a Subject and Predicate of its own is called a **Subordinate Clause**. Cf. § 12.

## 9 NOUN-EQUIVALENTS.

A Noun-equivalent may be:—

### (1) A Pronoun:

The boy is here; *he* has not been long.

*You* are fortunate, *I* am wretched.

*It* is *I*.

### (2) A Verb-noun:

*To see* is *to believe*. *Seeing* is *believing*.

I desire *to learn*. His frequent *comings* and *goings*.

He will teach him hardness and *to slight his mother*.

*Note*.—A Verb-noun participates in all the constructions of the Verb to which it belongs. Thus it may take a Predicate

Adjective, Predicate Noun, or Predicate Pronoun; or an Object; or Two Objects; or an Object and a Predicate Adjective or Noun; and it may be qualified by an Adverb—just like a Verb.

(3) An Adjective (with or, less commonly, without *the*):

Burke's essay on *the sublime* and *the beautiful* (= *that which is beautiful, beauty*.)

There are tears for *the many*

And pleasures for *the few*.

In *the dead* of night.

*Rich* and *poor*, *old* and *young*, *good* and *bad* were there.

He went from *bad* to *worse*.

(4) A Verb-adjective (generally with *the*):

*The living* and *the dead*. *The killed* and *the wounded*.

(5) A Clause (in a Complex Sentence: § 12):

*That you have wronged me* doth appear in this.

Who knows *how it happened?* Tell me *what you mean*.

(6) A word or group of words quoted:

'*And*' is a conjunction. '*I think not*' was all he said.

But me no *buts*. There is much virtue in '*if*'

Letting '*I dare not*' wait upon '*I would*.'—SHAKSPERE.

When I was young—ah! woeful *when!*

Ere I was old—ah! woeful *ere!*

Cf. the sentence 'Forget me not,' which is now, as the name of a flower, a single word.

In sentences like '*Through the wood* is the nearest way,' '*From Tamworth hither* is but one day's march,' a Phrase formed with a Preposition would seem to stand as a Noun-equivalent. But this is not really so; the sentences are inverted forms of 'The nearest way is through the wood,' 'It is but one day's march from Tamworth hither.'

## 10 ADJECTIVE-EQUIVALENTS.

An Adjective-equivalent may be:—

(1) A Verb-adjective:

A *running* stream. A *printed* book.

The wind *raging* fiercely and *buffeting* our faces, the rain *falling* in torrents.

The city lies *sleeping*.

*Note*.—A Verb-adjective participates in all the constructions of the Verb to which it belongs. Thus it may take a Predicate Adjective, Predicate Noun, or Predicate Pronoun; or an Object; or Two Objects; or an Object and a Predicate Adjective or Predicate Noun; and it may be qualified by an Adverb—just like a Verb.

- (2) A Noun in Apposition, *i.e.* a Noun serving as another name for the same thing ;

We *English*. Victoria, *Empress of India*.

*King* Alfred. Simon Lee, the old *hunter*.

On yonder cliffs, a grisly *band*,

I see them sit. [*Band* is in apposition with 'them.']

- (3) A noun in the Genitive Case :

*Milton's* works. *Duncan's* murderer.

*To-day's* news. (= German 'die *heutigen* Nachrichten.')

A *summer's* day.

The *King's* palace. (= the *royal* palace.)

*Cicero's* treatise on friendship. (= the *Ciceronian* treatise.)

*Plato's* doctrine. (= the *Platonic* doctrine.)

- (4) A Noun in the Accusative Case (Accus. of Description) :

A book *the same size* as this.

Water *the colour* of pea-soup.

These equivalents are most often used like Predicate Adjectives :

The earth is *the shape* of an orange (= orange-shaped).

*What age* is he ?

For more examples, see § 80.

- (5) A Phrase formed with a Preposition :

A lump *of lead*. (= a *lead* lump.)

Men *of honour*. (= *honourable* men.)

Be *of good cheer*. (= be *cheerful* : equivalent of a Predicate Adjective.)

Ten years *of age*. (= ten years *old*.)

Houses *with roofs*. (= *roofed* houses.)

Towns *by the sea*. (= *maritime* towns.)

A wind *from the north*. (= a *northerly* wind.)

The way *through the wood*.

The day *after to-morrow*.

The philosophy *of Kant*. (= the *Kantian* philosophy.)

A bird *in the hand* is worth two *in the bush*.

The day *for pancakes*. (= *pancake* day : Compound Noun, see 6 below.)

Ills *to come*. (= *future* ill.)

The questions *to be answered* were many.

- (6) A Noun or Verb-noun forming part of a Compound Noun :

*Cannon* balls. (= balls *for the cannon* : see 5 above.)

*Walking* sticks. (= sticks *for walking*.)

A *head* wind. (= a wind *from the front*.)

The *sick* room. (= the room *for the sick*: see § 5 above and § 9. 3.)

DEFINITION.—A **Compound Noun** consists of two Nouns (or of a Noun and a Verb-noun) the first of which is an Attribute of the second. The two nouns may be written either as two distinct words, or as two words joined by a hyphen, or as a single word: *e.g.* lunatic asylum—dancing lesson—sheep-dog—milkmaid. That the first part of such compounds is a Noun (and not an Adjective) is shown by the meaning. A *lunatic asylum* does not mean an *asylum that is insane*, but an *asylum for lunatics*. So a *walking stick* means a *stick for walking*, not a *stick that walks*; a *dancing master* means a *master for dancing*; a *dancing lesson* means a *lesson in dancing*; a *church-going bell* means a *bell for going to church* (not a bell that goes to church, like the bell in Goethe's poem called the 'Walking Bell').

OBS.—In a few cases it is uncertain whether the qualifying word ending in *-ing* is a Verb-noun or a Verb-adjective: *e.g.* a *driving belt* may mean either a belt that *drives* (the machinery) or a belt *for driving* it. Cf. *hunting dog*, *servant man*, *dispensing power*.

A Compound Noun may itself be used as an Attribute and thus form another Compound Noun: *e.g.* *drawing-room furniture*. In this way long Compound Nouns are formed, such as *Commons Enclosure Consolidation Act*.

(7) An Adverb:

An *inside* passenger.

Streets and porches *round*.

The houses *there*.

The *off* side.

The *then* King (= Greek  
ὁ τότε βασιλεύς).

The trees *yonder*.

(8) A Clause (in a Complex Sentence: § 12):

This is the house *that Jack built*.

*Who steals my purse* steals trash. [*who* = *he who*.]

I know a bank *whereon the wild thyme grows*.

'The house that Jack built' is as though one said 'the house built by Jack' or 'the Jack-built house.'

#### ADVERB-EQUIVALENTS.

(1) A Phrase formed with a Preposition:

He hunts *in the woods*.

Come *unto these yellow sands*.

He spoke *for me* (or *on my behalf*).

That is good *for nothing*.

Clever *in many ways*.

*By no means*. (=an emphatic *not*.)

He may live *for many years*.

He came *to see*. (=for seeing, i.e. *in order to see*.)

- (2) A Noun without a Preposition (Accus. of Time, Distance, etc. § 78):

I am going *home*. (=towards home. Direction.)

I have walked *miles*. (Distance.)

He may live *many years*. } (Time how long.)

*Centuries* old.

He died *last night*. } (Time when.)

It rained *this morning*. }

*A great deal* bigger. (Quantity.)

- (3) A Noun or Pronoun in the Dative Case, denoting the person interested or for whom something is done (§§ 97-103):

Give *him* (or *the man*) a glass of wine.

Fetch *me* a paper.

Knock *me* at this door, sirrah!

See how this river comes *me* cranking in!

- (4) A Clause (in a Complex Sentence: § 12):

*When you come*, I will tell you.

## 12 The Simple and the Complex Sentence.

(1) This is my house.

(2) This is the house that Jack built.

A sentence like (1), which contains only one group of words having a Subject and Predicate, is called **Simple** [Latin *simplex* 'onefold'].

A sentence like (2), which contains

(a) A Principal group with a Subject and Predicate of its own,

and (b) A Subordinate group with a Subject and Predicate of its own,

is called **Complex**, each of the groups being called a **Clause**.

<i>Principal Clause</i>		<i>Subordinate Clause</i>
This is the house		that Jack built.

DEFINITION. A **Clause** is a group of words forming part of a sentence and having a Subject and Predicate of its own.

A Principal Clause is of the nature of a Simple Sentence.

A Subordinate Clause is of the nature of a single part of speech. It may stand in a sentence as

- (1) Subject, *e.g.* *That you have wronged me* doth appear in this.
- (2) Predicate Noun, *e.g.* My belief is *that you are right*.
- (3) Object, *e.g.* In sooth I know not *why I am so sad*.
- (4) Attribute, *e.g.* The man *that hath no music in his soul*  
Is fit for treasons, stratagems, and spoils.
- (5) Adjunct, *e.g.* I am never merry *when I hear sweet music*.

### 13 Kinds of Subordinate Clause.

Subordinate Clauses may be classified according to the *part of speech* of which they are equivalents, as:

1. **Noun Clauses**, *i.e.*—Clauses playing the part of a Noun (§ 9.5). These will be treated in §§ 66-71.
2. **Adjective Clauses**, *i.e.*—Clauses playing the part of an Adjective (§ 10.8). These will be treated in §§ 62-65.
3. **Adverb Clauses**, *i.e.*—Clauses playing the part of an Adverb (§ 11.4). These will be treated in §§ 46-61.

### 14 Co-ordination and Subordination.

1. Two or more Sentences, Clauses, Phrases, or Single Words, linked together by one of the Conjunctions

*and, but, or, nor, for*

are called **Co-ordinate**, *i.e.* of the same rank; and the Conjunctions which link them together are called **Co-ordinating Conjunctions**:

(i.) Linking together Sentences:

*God made the country, and man made the town.*

*Small showers last long, but sudden storms are short.*

*Is he innocent or is he guilty?*

*The tale is long, nor have I heard it out.*

*Cast thy bread upon the waters, for thou shalt find it after many days.*

(ii.) Linking together Clauses:

The judge said *the case was a difficult one* and he would reconsider his decision.

Thou shalt speak my words to them, *whether they will hear* or *whether they will forbear*.

I do not know *who he is* nor *whence he comes*.

## iii.) Linking together Phrases, or Single Words :

*Darby and Joan* are a happy pair.

*Lifeless but beautiful* he lay.

A youth *to fortune and to fame* unknown.

He delivered a *powerful but ill-tempered* speech.

*To be or not to be*—that is the question.

OBS. 1. In modern English prose *for* (unlike the other Co-ordinating Conjunctions) can link together Sentences only.

In the oldest English *for* appears as a Preposition only. It was used, however, with the Dative and Instrumental Cases of the Demonstrative neuter Pronoun, followed by the indeclinable Relative *the*, to form the Conjunctional Phrases *for them the, for thou the, for thy the* = 'for the reason that,' 'because'; the Relative *the* was often dropped. By the further ellipsis of the Demonstrative Pronoun (or by the Preposition coming to govern the whole Clause that allowed), arose the use of the simple *for* as a Conjunction in two uses :

(a) introducing a Subordinate Clause (= *because*)—a use common in Shakspeare :

They are not ever jealous for the cause,

But jealous *for they are jealous.*

*Othello*, 3. 4. 160.

Why should this a desert be ?

*For it is unpeopled?* [*i.e.* Should it be a desert *because* it is unpeopled ?]

*As you like it*, 3. 2. 134.

This use appears as an archaism in Tennyson's *Gareth and Lynette* l. 386 :

And, *for* himself was of the greater state,

Being a King, he trusted his liege-lord

Would yield him this large honour all the more.

(b) introducing a Co-ordinate sentence (= Greek  $\gamma\acute{\alpha}\rho$ , Latin *nam, enim*, French *car*, German *denn*) : and this is the only use which has survived.

Examples of *for* standing alone as a Conjunction are found as early as the middle of the 12th Century: *e.g.* in the *Old English Chronicle* : On this Kinges time wes al unfrith . . . for agenes him risen sone tha rice men (= In this King's time all was hostility . . . for against him soon the rich men rise).

OBS. 2. In a sentence like—*This is what I think, but I shall be glad to be corrected if I am wrong*, we have two Complex Sentences co-ordinated by *but*.

2. The first members of a group linked together by one of the above Conjunctions may be preceded by a word which as it were duplicates the force of the Conjunction and so brings out more clearly the relation of the two groups. Thus we get the following pairs :—

*both...and...*

*either...or...*

*neither...nor...*

*not only...but...*

*Both, either, neither* are clearly not Conjunctions, for the work of a Co-ordinating Conjunction is to link a group which precedes to a group which follows it. These words, which serve to bind closer two groups linked by a Co-ordinating Conjunction, may be called Sentence Adverbs.

Contrast the use (now obsolete) of *either* as a conjunction (= *or*):

*Either* how canst thou say to thy brother, Brother [etc.]. *Luke vi. 42.*  
and the use of *neither* (= *nor, not.. either*) in:

Let not your heart be troubled, *neither* let it be afraid.  
He told me not to do it, *neither* will I.

In poetry we often find the archaic *or...or..., nor...nor... = either.. or..., neither...nor...,* respectively:

*Or* pining Love shall waste their youth,  
*Or* jealousy with rankling tooth.

*Nor* house, *nor* fence, *nor* dovecot  
In Crustumerium stands.—MACAULAY.

The first element is sometimes omitted:

Helm, *nor* hauberk's twisted mail,  
*Nor* even thy virtues, tyrant, shall avail...

3. All other Conjunctions are **Subordinating Conjunctions**, introducing either Adverb Clauses (§ 46) or Noun Clauses (§ 66).

But *whether...or...*, when used without a finite verb, may have the effect of Co-ordinating Conjunctions (= *either...or...*):

*Whether* true *or* false, the report will be believed.

To thee I have transferred

All judgment, *whether* in heav'n, *or* earth, *or* hell.

These are really cases of ellipsis, 'whether true or false' standing for 'whether they be true or false' (Conditional Clause: § 57). Note that the omission of *whether* would not affect the meaning. Compare the similar use of Latin *sive...sive*, Greek *εἴτε . . . εἴτε*.

4. Words like *therefore, however, nevertheless, yet, now* (= French *or*; as in: 'Not this man, but Barabbas.' *Now* Barabbas was a robber), *else, only* (= 'but'), *so, accordingly, hence, also, too, likewise, moreover*, though some of them frequently come at the beginning of a sentence, are not Conjunctions at all, but Adverbs. They qualify the sentence as a whole rather than any particular part of it, and may therefore be called Sentence Adverbs.



Other Adverbs which may be used thus are *truly*, *certainly*, *assuredly*, *verily*, *undoubtedly*: e.g. 'This is certainly false' (= 'It is certain that this is false'): contrast 'I do not know certainly,' where *certainly* qualifies *know*, and means 'for certain.'

The difference between Adverbs like *therefore* and Conjunctions like *and*, *but*, *for*, may be shown partly by the meaning ('therefore' = 'for that reason,' an Adverb-equivalent, § 11.2), partly by the fact that Conjunctions as link-words must stand at the head of a Sentence or Clause (e.g. 'He did me a kindness *and* I am grateful'), while these Adverbs may stand in the middle or at the end of a sentence (e.g. 'He did me a kindness: I am *therefore* grateful'). Again, in writing, sentences connected by Conjunctions are usually separated only by a comma or run straight on, while sentences connected by these Adverbs are separated by a semi-colon, a colon, or a full stop.

5. A clause introduced by the Relative Pronouns *who*, *which*, or a Relative Adverb such as *when* (= *and then*, *but then*), *whereupon*, or by such a Conjunction as *though*, may be equivalent in effect to a Co-ordinate Sentence:

I told it to my brother, *who* [= *and he*] told it to his wife.

*Which* [= *But this*] when the valiant elfe perceived,  
He leaped upon the flying prey.


The whole nation was jubilant; *when* [= *but then*] like a bolt from the blue, news arrived of a serious reverse.  
*Whereupon* [= *And thereupon*] Parliament was immediately convoked.

This may be true: *though* [= *and yet*] after all it is very doubtful.

6. When two Subordinate Clauses are linked together by a Co-ordinating Conjunction, they are *co-ordinate with one another*.


7. A Subordinate Clause may have another clause (or clauses) subordinate to *it*.

8. The Subordination and Co-ordination of Clauses in a sentence may be shown in a **sentence picture**, thus :

 The Principal Clause is printed in **thick letters**.

“When France in wrath her giant limbs upreared,  
And with that oath which smote air, earth, and sea,  
Stamped her strong foot, and said she would be free,  
Bear witness for me how I hoped and feared.”

- |    |                            |   |
|----|----------------------------|---|
| 1. | <b>Bear witness for me</b> |   |
| 2. |                            | how I hoped and feared                    |
| 3. |                            | when France in wrath . . . upreared       |
| 4. | [and]                      | stamped her strong foot with that<br>oath |
| 5. |                            | which smote air, earth, and sea           |
| 6. | [and]                      | said                                      |
| 7. |                            | she would be free.                        |

 2 is a Noun Clause, Object of Bear witness (1).

3 is an Adverb Clause, Adjunct of hoped and feared (2).

4 is an Adverb Clause (Co-ordinate with 3 and playing the same part).

5 is an Adjective Clause, Attribute of oath (4).

6 is an Adverb Clause (Co-ordinate with 3 and 4 and playing the same part).

7 is a Noun Clause, Object of said (6).



OBS. A Nominative of Address may be qualified by an Adjective Clause, which may be analysed by itself apart.

O thou *that tellest good tidings to Zion*, . . .

4. We may have a Sentence inserted parenthetically within a Sentence, and quite independent of it in construction; such parenthetical sentences must be analysed separately.

#### EXAMPLES.

He gained from heaven—'*twas all he wished*—a friend.

You say—*and I agree with you for once*—that such a course is impossible.

5. Verbs constructed with a fixed preposition are treated like simple verbs (see § 26b):

*I waited for* (Verb) him (Object) a long time.

6. Sentences of the following class present difficulties in analysis.

It is rarely that one of them is seen.

It was here that it happened.

It was on this condition that I went.

It is with this temper that I consider the subject of witchcraft.

How is it that you are here?

At first sight these sentences appear to be of the form of those containing a Formal Subject, like 'It is right that you should go,' which is the more usual way of saying 'That you should go is right.' But the sentences above will not bear this inversion; if we turn the first into 'That one of them is seen is rarely,' it becomes nonsense. On the contrary, they will be seen to be of the same type as:

It is Brown that I want.

It is you that I am talking to.

'Tis but thy name that is my enemy.

where 'it' = 'the person' or 'the thing,' the sentences being analysed thus:

<i>Subject</i>		<i>Predicate</i>
It		
that I want		is ( <i>Verb</i> ) Brown ( <i>Pred. Noun</i> )

This sentence is merely a very emphatic way of saying 'I want Brown—Brown and nobody else.' The emphatic word or

phrase of the sample sentence is encircled within 'it is . . . that' in order to give it prominence, the simple sentence being thus turned into a complex one. When the idiom was extended from nouns and noun-equivalents to adverbs and their equivalents, the resulting sentences were such as to defy grammatical analysis—a common phenomenon when language is forced to meet as best it may the requirements of thought. The extension was natural and easy, and has no doubt been furthered by the fact that the word 'that' in English is both a conjunction and a relative pronoun. Thus in the third sentence above, while it is mainly a conjunction, it would seem to be also a relative to 'condition.'

7. In sentences like the following the Infinitive is probably Adverbial, and therefore the italicized part will be put in the Adjunct column.

You seem *to be ill*.

He is known *to be reliable*.

It was felt *to be very unkind*.

15b

## Schemes of Analysis.

## SIMPLE SENTENCES.

1. I stood on the bridge at midnight.
2. John Gilpin was a citizen  
Of credit and renown.
3. He now set himself to gain the royal favour.
4. Thy eyes' shrewd tutor, that hard heart of thine,  
Had taught them scornful tricks.
5. The bigots of that iron time  
Had called his harmless art a crime.

SUBJECT.	PREDICATE				FORM OF PREDICATE	
	Verb	Predicate Noun Adjective or Pronoun	Object			Adjunct
			Direct	Indirect		
<u>I</u>	<u>stood</u>				(i) on the bridge (ii) at midnight	1st
<u>John Gilpin</u>	<u>was</u>	a citizen of credit and renown				2nd
<u>He</u>	<u>set</u>		<u>himself</u>		(i) now (ii) to gain the royal favour	3rd
Thy eyes' shrewd tutor, that hard heart of thine	<u>had</u> <u>taught</u>		scornful <u>tricks</u>	<u>them</u>		4th
The bigots of that iron time	<u>had</u> <u>called</u>	<u>a crime</u>	his harmless <u>art</u>			5th

## COMPLEX SENTENCES.

Far up the lengthened lake were spied  
 Four darkening specks upon the tide,  
 That, slow enlarging on the view,  
 Four mann'd and masted barges grew,  
 And, bearing downward from Glengyle,  
 Steer'd full upon the lonely isle.

SCOTT.

## SENTENCE PICTURE.

- A. Far up the lengthened lake were spied four darkening specks upon the tide  
 A. a. | that, slow enlarging on the view, four mann'd and masted barges grew  
 A. b. | [and] (that) bearing downward from Glengyle, steer'd full upon the lonely isle.

*Analysis.*

SUBJECT	PREDICATE				FORM OF PREDICATE	
	<i>Verb</i>	<i>Predicate Noun Adj. or Pronoun</i>	<i>Object</i>			<i>Adjunct</i>
			<i>Direct</i>	<i>Indirect</i>		
A. Four darkening specks upon the tide	<u>were spied</u>				far up the lengthen'd lake	1st
A. a. that slow enlarging on the view	<u>grew</u>	four mann'd and masted barges				2nd
A. b. (that) bearing downward from Glengyle	<u>steer'd</u>				full upon the lonely isle	1st

- 15c I had a strong hope, which never left me, that I should one day recover my liberty; and, as to the ignominy of being carried about for a monster, I considered myself to be a perfect stranger in the country, and that such a misfortune should never be charged upon me as a reproach if ever I should return to England; since the King of Great Britain himself, in my condition, must have undergone the same distress. DEAN SWIFT.

## SENTENCE PICTURE.

- A. I had a strong hope  
 A. a. | which never left me  
 A. b. | [that] I should one day recover my liberty  
 B. [and] I considered, as to the ignominy of being carried about  
       for a monster  
 B. a. | myself to be a perfect stranger in the country  
 B. b. | [and that] such a misfortune should never be  
       charged upon me as a reproach  
 B. b. 1. | [if] ever I should return to England  
 B. b. 2. | [since] the King of Great Britain himself,  
       in my condition, must have undergone  
       the same distress.

[For Analysis of this example, see next page.]



## ANALYSIS OF THE

SUBJECT		<i>Verb</i>	<i>Predicate Noun Adj. or Pronoun</i>
A.	<u>I</u>	<u>had</u>	
A. a.	<u>which</u>	<u>left</u>	
A. b.	<u>I</u>	<u>should recover</u>	
B.	<u>I</u>	<u>considered</u>	
B. a.	<u>Myself</u>	<u>to be</u>	a perfect <u>stranger</u>
B. b.	Such a <u>misfortune</u>	<u>should</u>	
B. b. 1.	<u>I</u>	<u>should return</u>	
B. b. 2.	The <u>King</u> of Great Britain himself	<u>must</u>	

## PRECEDING EXAMPLE.

PREDICATE		FORM OF PREDI- CATE
<i>Object</i>		
<i>Direct</i>	<i>Indirect</i>	
a strong <u>hope</u> which never left me, that I . . . liberty		3rd
<u>me</u>		3rd
my <u>liberty</u>		3rd
(i) myself . . . in the country (ii) that such a misfortune . . . to England		3rd
<u>be charged</u>		2nd
	(i) never (ii) upon me (iii) as a reproach (iv) if ever . . . Eng- land (v) since the King . . . same distress	3rd
	(i) <u>ever</u> (ii) to England	1st
<u>have undergone</u> the same distress	in my condition	3rd

## SYNTAX.

**Syntax** means *arranging together* [Greek *syn* 'together' and *taxis* 'an arranging'] and is the name given to that part of Grammar which treats of the ways in which words are arranged together in sentences.

**The two parts of Syntax.**

Syntax has to answer two questions :—

1. How are meanings expressed in sentences and parts of sentences? The answer is given in Part I. of Syntax (§§ 16-71), which deals with **Sentence Construction**.
2. What are the various meanings of words and their forms? The answer is given in Part II. of Syntax (§§ 72 foll.), which deals with **Meanings of Forms**.

☞ In dealing with Sentence Construction, those constructions which are peculiar to the Complex Sentence will be treated *after* those which are common to the Simple and the Complex Sentence.

## PART I.—SENTENCE CONSTRUCTION.

## THE SUBJECT.

- 16 1. As in other languages :—

- (a) The Subject is either a Noun or Noun-equivalent (§ 9).
- (b) If the Subject is a declinable word, it stands in the Nominative Case.

In modern English, Pronouns are the only words which have a distinct form for the Nominative Case.

*I* am here. *Thou* art the man. There *he* lies.

*We* could hardly believe it. *Who* is at the door?

*Man* is mortal. *To err* is human—*to forgive* divine.

☞ For the use of *it* as a Formal and as a Vague Subject, see § 2, Obs. 1.

**Caution.** In sentences like 'There was a great calm', 'There rose a mighty shout', *there* belongs to the Predicate (cf. § 2, Obs. 2), though its position at the beginning of the sentence serves to indicate that the Subject follows. In French and German we have a Formal Subject, *il, es*, in such cases: *Es regierte ein König*, 'there reigned a King'; *il sortit trois messieurs*, 'there came out three gentlemen'.

Obs.—English offers nothing analogous to the impersonal Passive Construction with a Vague Subject which is so common

in Latin and German; e.g. Latin *itur*, 'it is gone', i.e. 'there is a going', 'someone is going'; *pugnatum est*, 'it was fought', 'there was fighting'; *mihī parçitur*, 'it is spared to me' (i.e. I am spared); German *es wird getanzt* 'it is danced', 'there is dancing.'

2. The Subject is ordinarily omitted in Commands and Prohibitions:

Let the cat alone. Do not go yet.

Come unto these yellow sands.

Notice also the omission of the Subject 'I' in common expressions such as, 'Thank you,' 'Pray' (compare German *danke, bitte*); and in very colloquial speech: 'Who do you think has come?'—'Haven't the remotest idea'.

## THE PREDICATE.

### THE VERB.

#### 17 Agreement of the Verb with the Subject.

As in other languages, the finite Verb agrees with the Subject in Number and Person. In modern English, this agreement is not shown by difference of form except in the 3rd Person Sing. Present Indic. (-*es*, -*s*, or in poetry sometimes -*eth*), and the 2nd Person Sing. Pres. and Past Indic. (-*est*, -*st*: these forms are liturgical and poetical).

The boy shout-*s* (*is* shouting). The boys shout (*are* shouting).

I teach. Thou teach-*est*. He teach-*es*. We teach.

He com-*eth* not, she said.

**Caution.** Be careful to observe the rule of agreement in longer sentences, where mistake is easy (especially where the subject is singular and a plural noun comes between it and the verb); e.g. 'The *appearance* of many things in the country, in the villages one passed through, and in this town, *reminds* [not *remind*] me of Dutch pictures.' 'Nothing but dreary dykes *occurs* [not *occur*] to break the monotony of the landscape.'

#### 18 Construction according to Sense.

A Singular Noun of Multitude (or Collective Singular) may take either a Singular or a Plural Verb according to whether collective or individual action is to be indicated. Thus:

Parliament *is* now sitting. The senate *has* ruled otherwise.

The crowd *has* dispersed. Our army *was* in a sad plight.

The majority *is* thus resolved.

Three shillings *is* an excessive price. Two-thirds of the city *lies* in ruins.

In each case the 'multitude' is conceived of in the mass, acting as a body. But in the following each individual of the 'multitude' is regarded as acting separately; hence the Plural Verb:

The majority *are* going home.

The lowing herd *wind* slowly o'er the lea. [The picture which Gray presents to us in this line is that of each one of the cattle following its own path over the meadow.]

But times are altered; trade's unfeeling train

*Usurp* the land, and *dispossess* the swain.—GOLDSMITH.

Note also:

The military [= the soldiers] *were* called out.

The poultry [= the fowls, ducks, etc.] *are* being fed.

In this connexion, Bain in his *Companion to the Higher English Grammar* (ed. 2) p. 289 has an interesting passage on what he calls the 'convenience of a neutral number.' He refers to the facilities there are in English for avoiding awkwardness or the committing oneself definitely to singular or plural in the use we can make of forms common to both numbers, e.g. past tenses, and the Verbs *can, must, would, might*, and the like. He illustrates the point in the following sentence:

"But an *aggregate* [collective noun] of contemporary individuals of the same species *cannot* [good evasion of number] be properly said to form a generation, except by assuming that *they* and *their children* are all born, respectively, at the same time [the plural 'are' is especially wanted; there is an emphasis put upon the separateness of the individuals]."

## 19

### Compound Subject.

✎ A Compound Subject is a Subject made up of two or more Nouns or Noun-equivalents linked together by the Conjunction 'and,' or united in thought without a Conjunction.

## 20

### 1. Number of the Verb.

His father and his mother *are* dead.

Fire and water *do* not agree.

The buyer and seller soon *come* to an understanding.

To them his heart, his love, his griefs *were* given.

RULE.—When the Subject is Compound, the Verb is Plural.

## 21

### 2. Person of the Verb.

His son and I *are* friends.

You and they *would* agree on that point.

He and his brother *were* to have come.

RULE.—If the words composing the Subject are of different persons, then the Plural Verb is of the 1st Person rather than the 2nd or 3rd, and of the 2nd Person rather than the 3rd.

REASON: “His son and I” cannot be spoken of together except as “we”; similarly “you and they” = “you”; “he and his brother” = “they.”

- 22 The Verb *may* agree with the part of the Subject which stands nearest to it, especially if that part serves as a climax to the whole of the Subject :

One, whose voice, whose look *dispenses* life and death.

Your interest, your honour, God himself *bids* you do it.

This is chiefly rhetorical or poetical, as is also the following use where the Verb precedes the Subject :

Therein *consists* the force, the use, and nature of language.

Formerly, where the Verb preceded the Subject (Simple or Compound) the Singular was as common as the Plural. Thus in Shakspeare :

There *is* no more such masters.

In the Bible :

Now *abideth* faith, hope, charity, these three.

Thine *is* the kingdom, and the power, and the glory.

Therein *was* written lamentations, and mourning, and woe.

When the Subjects are pronouns, usage fluctuates. Thus Shakspeare has in one place: ‘Thou and I *am* one.’ But Tennyson (*In Memoriam*) writes: ‘Thou and I *are* one.’

## 22b Construction according to Sense.

1. If the words composing the Subject are so closely connected as to express *one idea*, the Verb may be Singular :

The mind and spirit

*Remains* invincible.—MILTON.

All torment, trouble, wonder, and amazement

*Inhabits* here.—SHAKSPERE.

There *was* great noise and confusion.

The long and the short of the matter *is* this.

2. The preposition *with* may serve as an equivalent of *and* :  
 Old Sir John with half-a-dozen more *are* at the door.  
 The side A with the sides B and C *compose* the triangle.

## 23

**Or, nor.**

1. The Conjunctions *or, nor* do not link words so as to form a Compound Subject. The Verb is therefore not necessarily Plural :

Either he or she *is* in fault.

Neither the French nor the Germans *desire war*.

Constructions like the following should be avoided: 'Neither death nor fortune *were* sufficient to subdue the mind of Cargill' (Fox, *History of James II.*).

2. When one of the Subjects joined by *or, nor* is Plural, the Verb must be Plural, and the Plural Subject should be placed nearest the Verb :

Neither the Emperor nor his people *desire war*.

3. When the Subjects are of different persons, the Verb is made to agree with the Subject nearest to it :

Either my brother or I *am* going.

Neither you nor he *is* in fault.

Neither he nor *we* have any doubt of it.

In the majority of cases, however, this form of expression is awkward, and is especially so when the sentence is a question, *e.g.* 'Is he or we wrong?' Avoid the difficulty by saying :

Either my brother is going, or I am.

You are not in fault, nor is he.

He has no doubt of it, nor have we.

Is he wrong, or are we?

In Greek, Latin, French, German, and Spanish, when two Personal Pronouns connected by 'neither . . . nor' are the Subject, the Verb is Plural, 'neither . . . nor' being treated as equivalent to 'both . . . and . . . not.'

24 PREDICATE ADJECTIVE OR NOUN REFERRING TO THE SUBJECT (§ 2).

The chief Verbs which may stand in a Predicate of the Second Form are :—

1. Verbs meaning *to be, to become, to remain, to seem.*

Be *quiet*.

Hiders are *good finders*.

The lad became *rich*.

He remains *poor*.

They seem *clever*.

He grew *tall*.

He keeps *strong*.

They look *healthy*.

Some of the above Verbs may also be used without a Predicate Adjective or Noun; in this case they form a Predicate of the 1st Form, either by themselves or as qualified by Adverbial Adjuncts: 'My father *is* no more' (*i.e.* is dead). 'A river *was* there once upon a time.' 'Men pass away, the Universe *remains*'.  
 2. Passives meaning *to be made, to be chosen, to be called, to be declared*:

The door has been made (*or* rendered) *secure*.

Who has been chosen (*or* elected) *president*?

He will be called (*or* named, entitled, designated, styled) *emperor*.

They are thought (*or* considered) *wise*.

The Committee is held (*or* reckoned) *responsible*.

The defendant was declared (*or* pronounced) *innocent*.

3. Whether with Intransitive or with Passive Verbs, the Predicate Adjective or Noun denotes either:—

(a) The state resulting from an action:

He turned out *a rascal*. (Cf. He turned out *to be a rascal*.)

The wall was built *higher*. (Cf. The wall was built *so as to be higher*.)

or (b) What the Subject is, was, or will be, at the time of the action:

The snow falls *thick* upon the ground.

*Lifeless* but *beautiful* he lay.

He will stand *firm*.

The flowers smell *sweet*.

*Dark* lowers the tempest overhead.

The whole country was laid *waste*.

I will live *a bachelor*.

The platter was licked *clean*.

The crew were rescued *safe and sound*.

With many of the above Verbs in 1 and 2, in addition to the mere Predicate Adjective or Noun, we quite as frequently have the Infinitive *to be*; *e.g.*, 'They seem *to be clever*.' While the meaning is the same the character of the construction is entirely altered, the Adjective or Noun belonging to the Infin. *to be* and not to the Principal Verb. Compare § 35.1. The Infinitive is Adverbial.

**Caution.** Avoid using an Adverb (for Adjective) in a Predicate of the 2nd Form; thus say: 'The table looks *nice*'



(not *nicely*). 'The flowers smell *sweet*' (not *sweetly*). 'On the next day the corpse looked *different*' (not *differently*).

The interesting case of 'to be *friends* with', in which the Pred. Noun is always plural whatever the Number of the Subject may be, is not so startling an anomaly as it seems; it is easy to see how (*e.g.*) 'He and the Prime Minister are great friends,' by assimilation to 'He is very friendly with the Prime Minister,' could give rise to 'He is great friends with the Prime Minister'.

## 25 Agreement of the Predicate Adjective, Noun, and Pronoun.

1. The Predicate Adjective, Noun, or Pronoun agrees as far as possible with the word of which it is predicated (here the Subject).

2. In Mod. E., agreement is not shown by inflexion, except in the case of *this, these, and that, those*.

3. The Predicate Noun and Predicate Pronoun stand in the Nominative Case:

It is *I*. I am *he* whom you want.

Is it *we* you are talking to?

4. *It is I*. In Old English this sentence had the form 'Ic hit eom,' *i.e.* 'I am it' = German *ich bin es*. In Chaucer (14th century) we find 'It am I,' the Pred. Pronoun *it* (= the person meant) being placed first in the sentence. Later, the *it* was taken as the Subject and the verb was made to agree with it in Person. This gave the modern 'It is I.'

'It is *me*' is a form of speech frequent in current English and is used even by educated speakers, who would not, however, say 'it's *him*,' 'it's *her*,' 'it's *us*,' or 'it's *them*,' these being generally regarded as vulgar or dialectal. The sound analogy of *he, she, and we* has no doubt furthered the use of *me* as a regular and natural form of expression in such cases. But compare French 'c'est *moi*' (Emphatic form used as Nominative).

5. The following Adverbs have passed into Adjectives capable of being used only predicatively:—

(i) *Well, ill, poorly*, and (in illiterate speech) *badly* (= 'poorly, *nicely* (as 'How's your brother?'—'Oh, he's *nicely*, thank you,)

(ii) Adverbs of the class *abed* (= 'on bed' or 'in bed'), *abroad, across, afoot, aloft, around, ashore, aslant, asleep*. Cf. Accidence § 204.

NOTE.—*Awake* is of different origin, being a worn-down form of *awaken*, the old Passive Participle of the verb *awake*.

OBS. One advantage of non-flexional agreement is that the same adjective may be made to qualify a singular and a plural noun at the same time: e.g. 'some particular chapter or chapters,' 'which person or persons *unknown*?' ; where in some languages the adjective would have to be put with each noun in different forms.

## THE OBJECT (§ 3).

- 26
1. The single Object stands in the Accusative Case.
  2. In modern English, Pronouns are the only words possessing a distinct form for the Accusative.
  3. As in other languages, the Object may be a Noun or Noun-equivalent.

## EXAMPLES.

The sound of drums aroused *me*.

What aileth *thee* ?

Railway travelling tires *her* dreadfully.

We have been expecting *you*.

The singing pleased *us* most.

*Whom* were you expecting ?

Many people dislike *German bands* ; I detest *them*.

Fortune favours *the brave*.

I prefer *walking* to cycling. [Verb-Noun].

4. The Object may denote :—

(i) The person or thing to which something is done :

They murdered *the king*.

John has bought *a house*.

The girl is plucking *flowers*.

(ii) The result of what is done :

The people elected *a king*.

John has built *a house*.

The girl paints *flowers*.

(iii) That which is done :

I dreamed *a dream*.

He laughed *a bitter laugh*.

The King lived *the life* of an exile.

They are running *a race*.

I have fought *the good fight*.

An object of the third kind (which denotes the action itself) is called a Cognate Object [Latin *cognatus* 'akin'] because it is of kindred meaning with the verb.

Contrast 'He ran *a race*' with 'He ran *a mile*,' where 'a mile' is an Adverbial Accusative of Distance (§ 78).

For *it* as an Object with vague meaning, see § 232.

OBS. The object denotes the person or thing *with respect to* which an action takes place, or it serves to point out *how far*, i.e. *to whom* or *to what* the action of the Verb extends. Thus it is in origin of the nature of an Adverb, or (as we say) expresses an Adverbial relation. It is no longer however distinctly felt as an adverbial part of the sentence, but simply as denoting the person or thing that suffers the action expressed by the Verb.

## 26b Verbs constructed with a fixed Preposition.

1. Many verbs of *Intransitive* meaning, when compounded with Prepositions, fixed for particular meanings, become equivalent to Transitive verbs. Simple Transitive verbs (often of French or Latin origin) may usually be substituted for them. Thus:—

to speak to	= to address.
to wonder at	= to admire (in its old sense).
to laugh at	= to ridicule, deride.
to wish for	= to desire.
to think of	= to consider.
to ask for	= to demand.
to speak of	= to discuss, mention.

So also numerous others, such as *to answer for*, *to come at*, *to do with*, *to do without*, *to despair of*, *to look for*, *to put upon* (= *to impose upon*), *to sigh for*, *to tally with*, *to touch upon*, *to wait for*, *to wait upon*, etc., etc.

2. From these must be distinguished combinations of *Transitive* verbs with certain adverbs, as *away*, *back*, *forth*, *in*, *off*, *on*, *up*, etc.

Observe that the adverb in most cases may either precede or follow the object. Thus we may say: 'Call off the hounds' or 'Call the hounds off.'

The number of such combinations is practically limitless. Some of them may be themselves constructed, like simple verbs, with fixed prepositions, as *to come out with* (an expression), *to put up with*, *to do away with*, *to do out of* (slang = to deprive of), *to take up with*.

## 27

### Passive Construction.

1. In the Passive Construction of Verbs taking one Object, what was the Object in the Active becomes the Subject; what was the Subject in the Active is generally expressed by means of the Preposition *by* with the Accusative.

ACTIVE.	PASSIVE.
A wild beast fed him.	He was fed by a wild beast.
An arrow wounded him.	He was wounded by an arrow.

2. When a Verb with a fixed Preposition (§ 26b. 1) is turned into the Passive, there results a compound form consisting of the Participle with the Preposition tacked on to it.

- He was *spoken to* sharply.  
 Such a result cannot be *wondered at*.  
 I was *laughed at* by everybody.  
 Nobody could be *listened to* more attentively.  
 The proposal was *approved of*.  
 Don't be *imposed upon*.  
 He is *done for*.  
 It is a danger to be *striven against*.  
 The difference could not be *accounted for*.  
 A few points only are *touched upon* (or *dealt with*).  
 To be left till *called for*.

This is not restricted to cases of *fixed* Prepositions; e.g., 'The bed had not been *left in*.'

Verbs with fixed Adverbs (§ 26b.2) assume a similar *form* in the Passive, but the Verb and Adverb are parsed separately, because the Adverb retains its syntactical independence.

- The military are being *called out*.  
 The hounds were *cast off*.  
 I was *put up* for the night at a farmhouse.  
 The cause was *taken up* with enthusiasm.  
 The applicant was *sent away* empty-handed.

The Passive Constr. of phrases like *come out with* is somewhat limited; e.g. we should not say:

- Such and such an expression was *come out with*.  
 But observe the conciseness of:  
 Such a state of things cannot be *put up with*.  
 This practice has long been *done away with*.  
 The tragedy is *led up to* by a pathetic love-story.  
 He was *done out of* £1,000.

29 ORIGIN OF VERBS CONSTRUCTED WITH A FIXED PREPOSITION.—In O.E. there were many verbs, as in Latin, which took a Genitive or a Dative of the Object (see §77); the majority of them came ultimately to govern an Accusative; with others, however, a desire seems to have been felt to retain some trace of the original cases, and this was done by means of prepositions. This tendency was helped by the analogy of such O.E. verbs as were already constructed with fixed prepositions, which had, however, their full meaning. e.g. *leornian at him* to learn from him. Of these there is a good number in

Mod. E. ; such are : *to agree with, to come at, to do for, to do without, to lean upon, to sing of, to speak about, to tell of,* etc., etc.

The following verbs, with many others which have not come down into modern English, took a Genitive in O.E. : *bethencan* to bethink, *hlīehhan* to laugh, *missan* to miss, *rēcan* to reckon (= care), *wilnian* to desire, *wýscan* to wish, *giernan* to yearn. Some of these now govern an Accusative, as *will, miss* (though 'to miss of a person' is still heard); others are constructed with fixed prepositions, as 'to bethink oneself of,' 'to laugh at,' 'to reckon of,' 'to wish for,' 'to yearn for.' The following verbs governed the Dative in O.E. : *andswerian* to answer, *dēman* to judge, deem, *folgian* to follow, *helfan* to help, *hērcnian* to harken, *hlýstan* to list (= listen), *līcian* to like (= please, as 'It likes us not' *Hamlet* 2. 2. 80). Of these, *answer, follow, help,* now govern an Accusative; while *harken, list* (archaic) are constructed with *to*.

An equally important batch of verbs constructed with fixed prepositions was furnished by the introduction of French verbs taking *de* and *à*, themselves representing the Latin Genitive, Dative, and Ablative; *of* and *to* were generally the English representatives of *de* and *à*. The number of verbs of this class has become greatly lessened in mod. Eng. owing to the fact that many which at first took a preposition now take a simple object (Accusative or Dative), e.g. *obey*, formerly *obey to* = French *obéir à*.

## 30

## Verbs taking an Infinitive as Object.

The following are some of the most important Verbs that take an Infinitive as Object :—

1. An Infinitive without *to* :

I can	I shall
I do	I will
I may	

Of these verbs *do, may, shall,* and *will* are in very common use as auxiliaries of tense and mood.

There is no longer a very distinct feeling that the Infinitive after the above verbs is an Object, except perhaps in the case of 'I *will* do it' (= 'I will the doing or it,' 'I intend to do it'), where *will* has its full and independent meaning. But the original meaning in the case of all of them shows the Infinitive to be a true Object. For example, *can* = 'know': therefore 'I can swim' is the exact equivalent of Latin *sciō nāre*. (Chaucer has 'I can a noble tale.')

Similarly *do* = 'perform,' *shall* = 'owe,' (*I shall go* = 'I owe to go,' 'I owe going,' *dōbeō ire*).

2. An Infinitive with *to* :

I begin	I intend
I cease	I learn
I commence	I like
I continue	I mean
I desire	I ought
I expect	I prepare
I fear	I prefer
I have (= I hold as an obligation, am bound or obliged, as 'I have to go')	I purpose
I hope	I try
	I wish
	etc.

3. *I dare* takes—

either (i) an Infin. without *to* : I dare *say*. He dare not *spea*k.

or (ii) an Infin. with *to* : Does he dare *to say* so ?

*I need* takes :

either (i) an Infin. without *to* : He need not *know*. Why  
need he *do* it? What need a man *care* ?

or (ii) an Infin. with *to* : The clothes need *to be dried*.

[Equiv. : need *drying* (verb-noun).]

REMARK.—Many of the verbs in 2 and 3 above may take other Objects :

He dared *everything*.

She began *crying*.

It requires *taking care of*.

The voice ceased *talking*.

Prefer *death* to dishonour.

## 31

## TWO OBJECTS.

'I gave him a book.' In such a sentence as this two things are mentioned as coming under the action of the verb ; in other words, there are two Objects. These Objects are affected by the action in different ways. One of these Objects, 'a book,' denotes the thing which the action affects *directly*, and is called the **Direct Object**, and is in the Accusative Case like a single Object ; the other, 'him,' takes us a step farther and denotes the person *to* or *for* whom the action of giving the book is performed ; it is called the **Indirect Object** and is in the Dative Case.

Many verbs, chiefly those meaning 'give,' 'bestow,' or 'convey'

(in some way), 'show,' 'tell,' take two Objects of this kind ; the following are the most important :

I afford	I play (as 'to play one a trick')*
allot	prescribe
allow	present
ask	proffer
award	promise
bring	reach (as 'reach me my hat')*
convey	refuse
deny*	render
do (as 'to do one a favour')*	restore
fetch	save ('it saves me a deal of trouble')*
forgive*	sell
give	send
grant	show
leave	spare*
lend	take
offer	teach
owe	tell
pardon*	write
pay	yield
permit	

\* With the verbs marked thus we cannot *usually* substitute an Adverb-phrase formed with a Preposition for the Indirect Object.

31b For the simple Dative with these verbs may be substituted an Adverb-phrase formed with the prepositions *to* or *for*, but *always* with an inversion in the order of the Objects ; thus :—

- either 1. I gave *the boy* the money.  
or 2. I gave the money *to the boy*.  
either 1. He told *us* the whole story.  
or 2. He told the whole story *to us*.  
either 1. Write *him* a long letter.  
or 2. Write a long letter *to him*.

31c **Two Accusatives.**—In OE. very few verbs took two Objects in the Accus., the chief were *āscian* to ask, *lǣran* (=German *lehren*) and *tācan* to teach. With *āscian* one or both of the Objects were pronouns (cf. Latin *rogare*, etc.), but this construction has been extended, and now either Object may be any noun or noun-equivalent ; of the other, *lǣran* is obsolete and *tācan* more often took Accus. and Dative. *Ask*, therefore, is the only verb in modern English which may be said to take two Objects in the Accusative.

32

**Passive Construction.**

In the Passive Construction either the Direct or the Indirect Object may become the Subject of the Passive verb; thus:

either 1. The way was shown to me.

or 2. I was shown the way.

either 1. The post was offered (to) him.

or 2. He was offered the post.

either 1. The prize was awarded (to) them.

or 2. They were awarded the prize.

either 1. The whole story was told to my father.

or 2. My father was told the whole story.

He was granted his desire.

We were allowed £1 a day.

Even this wretched guilty subterfuge was not permitted him.

Sentences like (1) are common to all languages. Sentences like (2) are chiefly peculiar to English, but are found in Greek and occasionally in Latin (see *Greek Gram.* § 332).

Observe, however, that this Pass. Constr. has limits and is impossible with particular verbs or particular objects; e.g. we do not hesitate to say: 'The money was given to the boy,' 'A long letter was written to him,' but such sentences as 'The boy was given the money,' 'He was written a long letter' are either awkward or quite impossible. Again, 'The trouble was spared me,' is hardly English, while 'I was spared the trouble' is quite natural.

The following uses seem to stand by themselves:

'He was banished the realm.' 'He was dismissed the service.'

'They have been expelled the school.'

33 The Infinitive as a second Object is found only with a few verbs.

I taught him *to swim*.

Give him *to understand* that [etc.].

34 PREDICATE ADJECTIVE OR NOUN REFERRING TO THE OBJECT.

1. The chief Verbs which may take a Predicate Adjective or Noun referring to the Object, are Verbs denoting *to make, choose, call, think, show*—the Verbs of which the Passives take a Predicate Adjective or Noun referring to the Subject (§ 24.2):



The soldiers made (chose, elected, appointed) him *general*.  
 They named King John *Lackland*.  
 I thought the house very *low* and *dark*.

Call it *my fear*

That keeps you in the house.—SHAKS.

Groans and convulsions, and a discoloured face, and friends weeping, and blacks [= black clothes, mourning], and obsequies, and the like, show death *terrible*.—BACON.

2. With other Transitive Verbs the Predicate Adjective may denote, as in § 24,3 :

either (a) a state resulting from an action :

Raise your head *higher*.

They beat him *black* and *blue*.

Leave him *alone*.

Have the horse *shot*.

Fill *high* the sparkling bowl.

We'll let the Scottish lion *loose*

Within the fields of Spain !

A lover's eyes will gaze an eagle *blind*.—SHAKS.

or (b) what the Object is, was, or will be at the time of the action :

The jury found the prisoner *guilty*.

They discovered him *hidden* in a barn.

I heard a heart of iron *beating* in the ancient tower.

I hope I see you *well* (cf. § 25.5).

35 I. Certain verbs of this class are often followed by the Infinitive *to be* with a Predicate Noun or Adjective attached to it (cf. § 24,3). This entirely alters the character of the construction, as may be seen by the fact that we may often substitute for the Accusative and Infinitive a Dependent Statement introduced by *that* : e.g. I found *him to be a good scholar* (= that he was a good scholar). They know *him to be a loyal* (= that he is loyal).

In these instances the predicate may be regarded as being of the 3rd Form, the italicised parts constituting the Object of the sentence. On the other hand, we cannot treat a sentence like 'I took him to be a brigand' in the same way ; here, no *that*-clause can be substituted and the Infinitive appears to be adverbial, the Predicate being of the 3rd Form (with Adjunct).

2. A similar ambiguity as to the Form of the Predicate is

found with verbs of perception, as *hear, see, feel*, with which we frequently have an Object followed by an Infinitive (without *to*) denoting an action performed by the Object :

Who saw *him die* ?

No one heard *him come in*.

The prisoner felt *the snake crawl over his arm*.

These Infinitives are best regarded as adverbial = 'a-dying,' etc., *i.e.* 'in (the act of) dying,' etc. Observe that a Dependent Statement may not be substituted in the same sense.

#### ATTRIBUTES (§ 6).

- 33 <sup>13</sup> Attributes are either Adjectives or Adjective-equivalents (§ 10). The present section deals with Adjectives and with Nouns in Apposition (§ 10. 2). For other Attributes see the Accusative of Description (§ 80) and the Genitive (§§ 87-96).

### Agreement of Attributes.

Attributes agree as far as possible with the words which they qualify.

(1) **Adjective as Attribute.** RULE. An Adjective that has a Plural form agrees in Number with the word that it qualifies.

In Old English, the period of full inflexions, agreement was shown by difference of form, in Gender, Number and Case, just as in Latin, Greek, and German. But in Mod. E. there has ceased to be any *formal* agreement (except in *this, these*, etc.). In French there is formal agreement in Gender and Number.

"*These kind of things.*" Such a form of expression, in which the Demonstrative Adjective agrees with the wrong noun, though actually illogical, is constantly heard and occurs in good writers. As early as Shakspeare we have 'These kind of knaves' (*King Lear*, 2. 2. 107).

(2) **Noun as Attribute.** RULE. The Noun in Apposition (§ 10) is of the same Case as the word that it qualifies.

'Miss Brown'.—This is an instance of a Noun in Apposition which is peculiar on account of the two forms which it may assume in the Plural, *viz.*, *the Misses Brown* or *the Miss Browns*. The former of these is perhaps the more correct (= the Misses having the surname Brown), but it is more natural for us to say 'the Miss Browns' without analysing the group, just as we say 'Miss Brown's.'

#### ADJUNCTS (§ 6).

- 37 <sup>13</sup> Adjuncts are either Adverbs or Adverb-equivalents (§ 11). For Adverb-equivalents see the Genitive (§ 86), the Accusative (§ 78), the Dative (§§ 97-103), the Prepositions (§§ 104 foll.).

## KINDS OF SENTENCES.

38 Sentences may be divided into the four following classes according to their form or the kind of meaning they express :

- I. STATEMENTS.
- II. REQUESTS, *i.e.*, COMMANDS, WISHES, CONCESSIONS.
- III. QUESTIONS.
- IV. EXCLAMATIONS.

## I. STATEMENTS.

39a 1. As in other languages Statements as to matters of fact are expressed by the Indicative :

I am happy. Day is dawning. My sister sang.  
Parliament was sitting at the time. You may go.  
She will sing to-morrow night.

2. In the Present and Past Tenses the compound form with *do, did*, is employed :

A. With emphasis :

I do wish you would let me sleep.  
Why, I do believe he is crying.  
She did indeed try to be contented.

B. Without emphasis, merely as a periphrastic form :

(i) In the older language. (The use dates from O. E. times and was frequent till about A.D. 1700).

I do set my bow in the cloud.—*Bible*.

Thus conscience does make cowards of us all.—SHAKSPERE.

They set bread before him and he did eat.—*Bible*.

(ii) In poetry and in solemn or formal language :

The small birds twitter,  
The lake doth glitter.

And I do nominate, institute, and appoint A. B. to be sole executor of this my will.

(iii) When there is inversion of the usual order of subject and verb :

Well do I remember the scene.  
Bitterly did we repent our decision.  
Not a single word did Peggotty say.

## Negative Statements.

39b A Statement is made negative by the addition of a Negative Adverb (or Adverb-equivalent): *e.g.* 'I am *not* (*never, by no means*) happy'.

But for the simple forms of the Present and Past Indicative a Compound form with *do*, *did* and the Infinitive must be substituted—except with *be*, *have*, and some other Verbs of one syllable like *dare*, *need*, *can*, *must*, *ought*, and all auxiliaries, and (usually) with Negative Adverbs other than *not*. Thus we say:—

He does not come now.  
 My sister did not sing.  
 They do not do so.  
 But He has not a rag to his back.  
 You dare not go.  
 He never comes now.

This applies to ordinary prose only; the simple forms may be used in all cases in archaic and poetical language:

*e.g.* He cometh not, she said.  
 Human laws reach not thoughts.

### Conditional Statements.

Some statements speak of what *would* be done or have been done. These take the Past Subjunctive. Sentences of this kind are either conditional sentences of Class B (§ 55), or such sentences with the If-Clause suppressed.

She *would sing*, if you asked her.

One *could wish* it otherwise.

[‘could’ = ‘*would* be able.’]

I *might* perhaps *see* him now.

[‘might’ = ‘*should* be able.’]

You *should have let* him alone.

[‘= it *would* have been right for you . . .’]

I *ought not to go*.

[ = it *would* not be right for me to go.]

It *were* a shame to let this land by lease.—SHAKS.

[‘Were’ = ‘would be.’]

OBS. 1.—As to the Subjunctive origin of *would*, *could*, *should*, etc., in these sentences, see *Anomalous Verbs*, §§ 195 foll.

OBS. 2.—Statements like the second and third examples above may be termed **Modest Assertions**, *i.e.* Cautious or Hesitating Statements. Modest Assertions may occur in many kinds of Subordinate Clauses as well as in Principal Clauses.

OBS. 3.—‘He would keep repeating again and again, Ruined! Ruined!’ Such a Sentence is not of this class; *would* = ‘used to’ and is an Indicative.

II. REQUESTS, *i.e.* COMMANDS, WISHES, CONCESSIONS.

## 40

## Commands.

- (i) *Go.* *Speak.*  
 Thou *shalt love* thy neighbour as thyself.  
 You *shall go* to-morrow.
- (ii) *Let him read* it through and then *let him form* an opinion.  
*Let them go* [if they will].  
*They shall go* [whether they will or not].
- (iii) *Let us pray.* *Let us stay* here.  
 Now *let us sing* hymn 201.  
*Sing we* merrily unto God our strength.—*Psalm lxxxi.*  
*Climb we* not too high,  
 Lest we should fall too low.—COLERIDGE.

Commands are expressed

(i) in the 2nd Person by the Imperative or by *shall* with the Infinitive.

OBS.—In colloquial speech an emphatic request is often conveyed by *do* with the Infinitive: *Do take* some more. *Do go*, please.

(ii) in the 3rd Person by *let* with the Infinitive (in a Predicate of the Fourth Form) or by *shall* with the Infinitive.

(iii) in the 1st Person by *let* with the Infinitive (in a Predicate of the Fourth Form). This construction is limited in the 1st Person *singular* to such colloquial expressions as 'Let me see' (= Fr. *voyons*) and poetry.

OBS.—Sentences like 'Let them (us) go' may mean two different things: (1) 'allow them (us) to go'; (2) 'they may go', 'we will or resolve to go' = Fr. *qu'ils aillent, allons*. The second meaning was in earlier English expressed by the Subjunctive: *cf.* the examples in small type in (iii) above.

## 41

## Prohibitions. (Negative Commands.)

Prohibitions are expressed

(i) in the 1st and 3rd Persons as in Commands, with the addition of the Negative Adverb.

(ii) in the 2nd Person by a Compound form, *do* with the Infinitive, the Negative standing between them; *e.g.*, *Do not go*.

This is the regular prose construction, but in poetry and solemn speech we often have the simple form: 'Tell me *not* in mournful numbers . . .'; also when the Negative Adverb is *never*, as 'Never *speak* of that again'.

## Wishes.

1. Wishes as to the *future* are commonly expressed by *may* with the Infinitive :

*May* I never *see* his face again !

Long *may* she *reign* !

The simple Subjunctive mood, as in "If ever I were traitor, my name *be* blotted from the book of life" (SHAKS.), survives chiefly in a few more or less fossilized expressions and in poetry and solemn speech :

Long *live* the King !

God *bless* you !

So *help* me God !

*Perish* the thought !

Ruin *seize* thee, ruthless King !

It appears occasionally also in colloquial or slang phrases, as "Grammar *be* hanged !"

2. Wishes as to the *present*, *i.e.* that something were otherwise than it actually is, are expressed by *Would* (*that*) or *Oh* (*that*) with the Past Subjunctive :

*Would that* I *were* there ! } [but I am not.]

*Oh were* I there !

*Would* (*Oh*) *that* it *were* not so ! [but it is.]

*Oh ! could* I feel what I have felt or be what I have been. (Complex Sentence containing Noun-clause as Object.)

3. Wishes as to the *past*, *i.e.* that something had been otherwise than it actually was, are expressed by *Would* (*that*) or *Oh that* with the Past Perfect Subjunctive :

*Would* or (*Oh*) *that* I *had* never seen it !

OBS. 1.—*Would* in these expressions is for *I would*, and is itself a Subjunctive = 'should like.'

OBS. 2.—When *Oh* stands alone as introducing word, the Verb *precedes* the Subject.

4. A wish involving the 1st Person may be expressed by *Oh* with the Infinitive preceded by *to* :

*Oh to be* nothing, nothing !

*Oh to have* been there !

5. The *if*-clause of a conditional sentence of Class B (§ 55)—the principal clause being suppressed—is sometimes equivalent to an expression of wish : *If I had only been there !*

### Concessions.

- 43 Concessions are expressed by the Subjunctive :

*Be* it so.

*Happen* what might. (Complex Sentence with Noun-clause as Subject := Let | what might | happen.)

OBS.—In ‘I will go, *be the weather what it may,*’ ‘*Cost what it might,* he would have it’, we have two sentences, the one a Statement, and the other a Concession equivalent in meaning to a Relative clause : ‘whatever the weather may be’, ‘whatever it might cost’.

44

### III. QUESTIONS.

As in other languages, questions fall into two classes :

1. Class A : questions that may be answered with ‘yes’ or ‘no.’ These are expressed by inverting the order of Subject and Verb in the corresponding Statement : e.g. ‘*You are there*’ becomes ‘*Are you there?*’

#### EXAMPLES.

Have you a penny ?

Was he ready ?

Are you sleeping ? Have you forgotten ?

Would she sing, if you asked her ?

(Complex Sentence, containing an Adverb Clause.)

Is not your brother happy ? *or*

Is your brother not happy ?

Do you speak German ?

Do cats eat bats ?

Has the boy made many mistakes ?

2. Class B : questions that cannot be answered with ‘yes’ or ‘no’. These are introduced by Interrogative Pronouns, Adjectives, or Adverbs, with inversion of Subject and Verb, except, of course, when the introducing word is the Subject of the sentence.

#### EXAMPLES.

Who goes there ?

Whom have we here ?

What ails thee, my poor child ?

Whence art thou ?





"To think of my honouring thee!" The second paraphrase shows the affinity of some questions of this kind to the exclamation. It is not surprising, therefore, that in the well-known passage of *Macbeth* (1. 7. 59)

if we should fail?—*We fail!*

many editors read "We fail!" *i.e.* as an exclamation.

It seems preferable to regard the verbs here as Infinitives, and not Subjunctives, though the analogy of Greek and Latin would give some support to the latter view. Cf., however, French *Que faire?* (What is to be done?) *Où aller?* (Where is one to go?), and Latin *Mene incepto desistere victam?* (Am I to abandon my purpose, baffled?).

46

## IV. EXCLAMATIONS.

1. Exclamatory sentences, *i.e.*, those expressing emotion, are usually marked either by a special introducing word or by inversion:

How spotless the snow is!

Ah! how short the days are!

How late it's getting!

Well hast thou fulfilled thy mission!

Could one have believed it!

How well he might have succeeded!

Woe's me!

Oh, what a fall was there, my countrymen!

2. Many exclamatory sentences are elliptical in character; a frequent form consists of a noun with an adjective qualifying it; in other cases, the sentence consists of one word only.

How foolish of him!

What a terrible accident!

That awful dream!

Poor dog!

Woe! woe! eternal woe!

Peace! Silence!

Note that when the subject of the exclamation is of the first person singular we have 'me' not 'I', probably in imitation of the Latin accusative of exclamation.

Oh *me!* that awful dream!

Ah *me!* ah *me!* Dear *me!*

This wish I have (= if I have this wish), then ten times happy *me!*

*Me* miserable!—MILTON. (= Lat. *me miserum!*)

3. And thirdly, we have mere interjections, *i.e.* words expressing sudden emotions.

Ah, well a day! Alas! alack!

Ha! ha! ho! ho! he! he!

## THE COMPLEX SENTENCE (§ 12).

## ADVERB CLAUSES (§ 13).

46 Adverb Clauses are classified according to the adverbial meaning which they express. Thus we have Adverb Clauses of—

- |  |  |
|--|--|
| <p>(a) <b>Time</b>, introduced by<br/> <i>when</i>,* <i>whenever</i><br/> <i>while</i>, <i>whilst</i><br/> <i>after</i>, <i>before</i>, † <i>ere</i><br/> <i>until</i>, <i>till</i><br/> <i>since</i><br/> <i>as</i>* (with <i>as soon</i>, <i>as long</i>,<br/> <i>so long</i> in the principal<br/> clause)<br/> <i>immediately</i>, <i>directly</i> (<i>that</i>)<br/> <i>now</i>, <i>once</i> (<i>that</i>)</p> <p>(b) <b>Place</b>, introduced by<br/> <i>where</i>,* <i>wherever</i>, <i>whereso-</i><br/> <i>ever</i><br/> <i>whence</i>,* <i>whencesoever</i><br/> <i>whither</i>,* <i>whithersoever</i></p> <p>(c) <b>Reason</b>, introduced by<br/> <i>because</i><br/> <i>since</i><br/> <i>as</i>, <i>that</i> (with correlative<br/> expressions in the principal<br/> clause)<br/> † <i>for that</i></p> | <p>(d) <b>Purpose</b>, introduced by<br/> <i>that</i> (preceded by <i>in order</i>,<br/> <i>to the end</i>, <i>so</i>)<br/> <i>lest</i> (= <i>that . . . not</i>)</p> <p>(e) <b>Result</b>, introduced by<br/> <i>that</i> (with correlative <i>so</i>, <i>such</i>)</p> <p>(f) <b>Condition</b>, introduced by<br/> <i>if</i><br/> † <i>if that</i><br/> <i>unless</i> (= <i>if . . . not</i>), † <i>but</i><br/> <i>whether . . . or</i> (= <i>if . . . or if</i>)<br/> <i>that</i> (preceded by <i>in case</i>, <i>on</i><br/> <i>condition</i>, <i>supposing</i>, <i>pro-</i><br/> <i>vided</i>)<br/> † <i>except</i>, † <i>so</i></p> <p>(g) <b>Concession</b>, introduced by<br/> <i>though</i>, <i>although</i><br/> <i>even if</i>, <i>even though</i><br/> † <i>albeit</i></p> <p>(h) <b>Comparison</b>, introduced<br/> by<br/> <i>as</i> (with <i>so</i>, <i>such</i>, <i>as</i> in the<br/> principal clause)<br/> <i>than</i></p> |
|--|--|

\* Words marked thus are also used to introduce Relative Clauses (§ 62).

† Expressions marked thus are now archaic.

OBS. For the history of *that* as a general introductory word in subordinate clauses, see § 47 OBS., § 48 OBS., etc.

## 47 Temporal Clauses. (Clauses of Time ; § 46, a.)

Temporal Clauses group themselves mainly under three heads :  
 1. The largest group comprises those which speak of a matter of fact in present or past time. These take the Indicative Mood :

*When it is fine*, I go for a walk.

It was broad day *when he awoke*.

*When morning came* (= *had come*), the fog had cleared away.

They waited *till the ship sailed* (= *had sailed*).

*As you come back*, call and have some tea.

It is some time *since I saw such acting*.

Read it through *after I have gone*.

Twelve years went by *before we met again*.

The natives fled *as soon as they saw* (= *had seen*) *us*.

*Now (that) you are here*, you had better stay.

2. But if the action of the Temporal Clause is prospective (i.e. if the Temporal Clause refers to the future, whether from a present or past point of view), three constructions are possible :

(a) The Subjunctive Mood may be employed, though in modern English this is chiefly limited to poetry and higher prose :

The sun a backward course shall take

*Ere aught thy manly courage **shake***.—BURNS.

The tree will wither *long before he **fall***.—BYRON.

Blow till thou **burst** thy wind.—SHAKS.

*Ere thou **go***, give up thy staff.—SHAKS.

This night *before the cock **crow***, thou shalt deny me thrice.

I cannot do anything *till thou **be come thither***.—Bible.

There is full liberty of feasting from this present hour of five till the bell **have** told eleven.—SHAKS.

The Past Subjunctive is not common, though examples may be found in the older language :

He charged them that they should tell no man what they had seen, *till the Son of Man **were arisen from the dead***.—Bible.

(b) A commoner construction, however, is *shall* or *should* with the Infinitive. This *shall* or *should* is used in all three persons and both numbers (*when I shall, when you shall, when he shall*), and is to be regarded as forming a Subjunctive-equivalent and not as a mere Future tense ; thus it corresponds closely to the Latin and Greek Subjunctive which is so common in prospective

clauses. Note that *shall* stands in present time (i.e. when the Principal Clause contains a verb of present time), *should* in past time (i.e. when the Principal Clause contains a verb of past time):

*When strength shall fail*, I will cease.

He determined to wait by the roadside *until it should be dark*.

(c) But the commonest construction in modern English prose is the Indicative Mood, and especially in present time. We do not ordinarily say 'I am waiting *till he come*' or 'I am waiting *till he shall come*', but 'I am waiting *till he comes*'.

This use of the Present Indicative referring to future time is a characteristic feature of the Germanic languages which have no proper Future Tense, but only a Future-equivalent (see § 131); just as we may say 'he starts to-morrow' for 'he will start to-morrow', so we say 'when he starts' for 'when he shall start.' \*

Keep them *till he sends for them*.

*When I get the letter*, you shall have it.

The corresponding use of the Past Indicative for *should* with the Infinitive is less common, but by no means infrequent:—

He determined to resign *before the crash came*.

I should go ahead quickly *when once I started*. †

Similarly we say: 'I shall go ahead when once I *have started*' (*have* for *shall have*); 'I should have gone ahead when once I *had started*' (*had* for *should have*). Cf. § 137.

3. *Ever*-clauses of Time (i.e. Clauses introduced by *whenever*) take the same moods and tenses as other Temporal Clauses in English, as they do in Latin, French, and German, though not in Greek. Thus we say '*Whenever it is fine*, I go for a walk,' '*Whenever he fell asleep*, he had horrible dreams' (like the examples under 1 above), '*Whenever I start*, I shall go ahead' (like the examples under 2 above).

In colloquial language *ever* sometimes simply serves to indicate that the action of the Principal Clause follows immediately on that of the Temporal Clause, and does not express a general statement, as: 'You may come as soon as *ever* you are ready'. In Scotland, 'whenever', which properly means 'as of en as', is used in the sense of 'as soon as (ever)': e.g. 'I shall go out *whenever* I have had my dinner' = 'as soon as I have had my dinner'.

\* This use of the Pres. Indic. therefore is to be regarded as a peculiarity of tense and not as a Subjunctive-equivalent.

† Or, *had started*.

OBS. In modern poetry *after that, before that, when that, since that*, etc. appear as archaisms.

This was the more usual construction in the earlier periods of the language. It arose first with such words as *after, ere, before, till*, used as prepositions. In O. E. these words were used in the constructions *after than the, after than the* = after the (event) that, *ær than the*, etc. Their subsequent history is parallel to that of *for than (the)* which ultimately gave the conjunction *for* (see § 14, Obs. 1). Thus we get *after* and *after that* (= Latin 'postquam'), *before* and *before that* (Lat. 'antequam') in concurrent use, like *for* and *for that*, the 'that' representing O. E. *them (the)*. In course of time, this form of construction was extended to words that were not originally prepositional, as *when, while, as*; and in more recent times analogy has gone further and given us *immediately that, directly that*. It is to be noticed that we use 'that' in ordinary prose only in these two last cases, and after *now* and *once*.

In consequence of its kindred relative character, 'as' was used like 'that' as a connective, chiefly in *when as*, which is used still in poetry.

#### 48 Local Clauses. (Clauses of Place: 46, b.)

Like Temporal Clauses, Local Clauses fall under three heads:—

1. Local Clauses which speak of a matter of fact in present or past time take the Indicative Mood:

The house stood *where three roads met*,

Remain *where you are*.

Fools rush in *where angels fear to tread*.

*Where rose the mountains*, there to him were friends.

Go back *whence you came*. Colloquial English: Go back *where you came from*.

*Whither I go*, ye cannot come.—*Bible*.

2. But if the action of the Local Clause is prospective, two constructions are possible:—

(a) We may have a Subjunctive-equivalent, *shall* or *should* with Infinitive:

*Where the tree shall fall*, there it shall lie.

(b) But the usual construction is the Indicative as in the corresponding class of Temporal Clauses (§ 47, 2 c):

*Where the tree falls*, there it shall lie.

*Where your treasure is*, there will your heart be also.

3. Ever-clauses of Place (*i.e.* Clauses introduced by *wherever, wheresoever*) take the same moods and tenses as other Local Clauses; thus we say 'Wherever he happens to be, he is on the point of going somewhere else'; 'Wherever she went, there would he' (like the examples in 1); and 'Wherever you are, do your duty,' 'They might go wherever they wished' (like the example

in 2). But where the Local Clause is prospective in present time we often have *may* as a Subjunctive-equivalent, e.g.,

Do your duty, *wherever you may be*.

*Might* is also occasionally found in past time :

He did his duty, *wherever he might be*.

Prospective Local Clauses containing a verb of past time are not common.

OBS.—Like *after that, when that* (§ 47, Obs.), we find *where that* coming up in Middle English, and still used in poetry as an archaism. *Where as*, like *when as*, was also common, but appears rarely in modern poetry ; in prose it has entirely lost its local meaning, and is now, of course, written as one word.

#### 49 Causal Clauses. (Clauses of Reason : § 46, c.)

The mood in Causal Clauses is the Indicative :

*As you are not ready*, we must go without you.

He will succeed, *because he is in earnest*.

*Since you insist on it*, I will consider the matter.

Freely we serve, *because we freely love*.—MILTON.

OBS. 1.—*For that* (representing O.E. *for them the*, etc.), and simply *for*, were once very common and are still found archaically as Causal Conjunctions : see § 14, OBS. I.

OBS. 2.—Many Conjunction-equivalents are in use, of the following kinds :

- (a) A phrase formed with a preposition governing a noun with a *that*-clause in apposition, as *on the ground that, for the reason that*. *Because* = ‘by (the) cau e’, which was often followed by *that*, is of this origin. (See § 68a, 2).
- (b) A verb-adjective governing a *that*-clause as object, as *seeing that, considering that* (see § 61 c, 3).  
This is strange *considering (that) he is your friend*.
- (c) A preposition governing a *that*-clause, as *in that* :  
*In that ye have done it unto the least of these*, ye have done it unto me.

#### 50 Final Clauses. (Clauses of Purpose : § 46, d.)

1 Final Clauses introduced by *that* take *may* with the Infinitive in present and future time, *might* in past time :

I eat *that I may live*.

Quick, *that all France may share thy joy!*

They climbed higher (so) *that they might get a better view*.

2. Negative Final Clauses are sometimes introduced by *lest* (= *that . . . not*), which takes *should* (and sometimes *may*) with the Infinitive :

I eat *lest I should* (or *may*) *die*.  
 Climb we not too high,  
*Lest we should fall too low*.

3. The Subjunctive, the original mood in Old English as in Latin, still survives in archaic and poetical use. The use of *may* and *might* as subjunctive-equivalents, goes back to O.E. times.

To act that each to-morrow  
**Find** us farther than to-day.—LONGFELLOW.

## 51 The Infinitive of Purpose.

When the Subject of the Final Clause denotes the same person or thing as the Subject of the Principal Clause, purpose is often expressed by the Infinitive with *to* or *in order to* :

I come *to bury* Caesar, not *to praise* him.  
 Fools who came *to scoff* remained *to pray*.  
 Read not *to contradict* and *confute*, nor *to believe* and *take*  
 for granted, nor *to find* talk and discourse, but *to weigh* and *consider*.—BACON.  
 We must go early *in order to get* a good place.

## 52 Consecutive Clauses. (Clauses of Result: § 46, e.)

1. Result is expressed by *that* with the Indicative or by *as* with the Infinitive :

He was so weak *that he fell down several times*.  
 It is so simple *that a child can understand it*.  
 The bow was so strong *that the suitors could not bend it*.  
 He is so lame *that he cannot walk*.  
 He is so lame *as to be unable to walk*.  
 I spoke so *that everyone could hear*.  
 I spoke so *as to be heard by everyone*.  
 Be so good *as to come*.

2. *That* with the Indicative denotes *fact*, and can be used only when the result is *actual*. *As* with the Infinitive does not necessarily denote fact, but may be used in all cases; it *must* be used when the result is to be marked as merely *contemplated* or *in prospect*, and not as a fact. The Subject of the Infin., unexpressed, must be the same as that of the Principal Verb.

3. *So* is usually present in the Principal Clause.

## 53 If-Clauses. (Clauses of Condition: § 46, f.)

A Complex Sentence consisting of an Adverb Clause of Condition (the If-Clause, sometimes called the Protasis) and a Principal Clause (sometimes called the Apodosis) is called a **Conditional Sentence**.

Conditional Sentences fall into two main classes, which are distinguished by the form and meaning of the **Principal Clause** :—

**A.** Those in which the Principal Clause does not speak of what *would be* or *would have been*, and the If-Clause implies nothing as to the fact or fulfilment (**Open Condition**): e.g. "If you are right, I am wrong", "If the sky falls, we shall catch larks." (The If-Clause does not imply that you actually *are* right, or that the sky actually *will* fall).

**B.** Those in which the Principal Clause speaks of what *would be* or *would have been*, and the If-Clause *implies a negative* (**Rejected Condition**): e.g. "If wishes were horses, beggars would ride" [implication: "wishes are *not* horses"]; "If the sky were to fall, we should catch larks" [implication: "I do not say that the sky *will* fall"].

Class **B** has a **special conditional form** in English as in other languages: the Principal Clause is expressed by a 'should' or 'would' (Past Subjunctive); the If-Clause is marked by a special use of Tenses and Moods to indicate the *remoteness* of the supposition: e.g. "If you *were* right, I *should be* wrong": compare "Si tū vēra dīceres, ego falsa dīcerem", "Wenn du Recht hättest, so würde ich Unrecht haben", "Si vous aviez raison, moi j'aurais tort."

54

## CLASS A.

i. When the Principal Clause does not speak of what *would be* or *would have been*, the If-Clause takes the Indicative:

a. **Present Time.** *If this is true*, that is false.

*If he does this*, he sins.

*Unless I look on Sylvia in the day*,

There is no day for me to look upon

b. **Past Time.**

*If he did this*, he sinned.

*If thou never wast at court*, thou never sawest good manners.

c. **Future Time.**

*If he does this*, he will sin. [does = 'shall do'.]



2. In the above sentence, the time referred to is the same in both clauses ; but this is not necessary :

*If he did it*, he is a fool.

*If he is wise*, he will come.

*If he had loved her before*, he now adored her.

*If you have done so*, you will be ruined.

3. A Principal Clause which does not speak of what *would be* or *would have been* is free, *i.e.* it may assume any of the forms of the simple sentence (§§ 39-45) :

*If you know*, tell us.

*If you have tears*, prepare to shed them now.

May I die, *if I know!*

Obs.—The If-Clause of a Sentence like ‘If he *is* wise, he will come’ is ambiguous ; *is* may be either a true Present or a Future-equivalent (§ 137) ; it may mean either ‘If he is wise now’ or ‘If he shall be wise in the future’. There is the same ambiguity in French and German. See below (Add. Rem., p. 60), and cf. § 55. 3.

## 55

## CLASS B.

1. When the Principal Clause speaks of what *would be* or *would have been*, both Clauses take the Subjunctive,\* as in Latin and German :

## a. Present Time.

*If he did this*, he **would** sin.

(*If he were doing this*, he **would** be sinning.)

**Were** my brave son at home, he **would** not suffer this. [*i.e. if my brave son were at home.*]

---

\* The Subjunctive is not always distinguishable in form ; but there is no justification for not calling *had*, *did*, *would* Subjunctives in the above Sentences. They are historically so, and their identity in form with the corresponding Indicatives is accidental (contrast *were*). Moreover, they cannot be Past Indicatives because they do not refer to past time.

**b. Past Time.**

*If he had done this, he would have sinned.*  
**Had** I but served my God with half the zeal  
 I served my King, He **would** not in mine age  
 Have left me naked to mine enemies.  
 [i.e. *if I had served.*]

**Had** we gone, we **should** have let you know.

**c. Future Time.**

*If he were to do this* } he **would** sin.  
*If he did this* }

Where the time referred to in both clauses is the same we have:

	IN THE IF-CLAUSE	IN THE PRINCIPAL CLAUSE
a.	Past Subjunctive	<i>should</i> or <i>would</i> with Present Infin.
b.	Pluperfect Subjunctive	<i>should</i> or <i>would</i> with Perfect Infin.
c.	<i>were to</i> with Present Infin.	<i>should</i> or <i>would</i> with Present Infin.

2. The time referred to, however, need not be the same in both Clauses. An If-Clause referring to past time may be joined to a Principal Clause referring to present time and vice versa:

*I should be happier now, if I had taken your advice.*

3. The Past Subjunctive may refer either to present or to future time; hence a sentence like '*If he did this, he would sin*' is ambiguous, and may belong to either *a* or *c*, because 'did' = 'were doing now' or 'were to do in the future'. The same ambiguity exists in French and German. Compare the exactly similar case in § 54 OBS.

4. Command is excluded from Principal Clauses of this Class.

5. Note that the Past Subjunctives 'had' (= 'would have') and 'were' (= 'would be') are now only used archaically in the Principal Clause:

If thou hadst been there, my brother *had* not died.—*Bible*.

Were I Brutus,  
 And Brutus Antony, there *were* an Antony  
 Would (*i.e.* who would) ruffle up your spirits.—SHAKS.

## ADDITIONAL REMARKS.

1. In If-Clauses of Class A English, German, Greek, Latin, and French all employ the Indicative Mood (*e.g.* 'If he *is* ill, he cannot go'), just as they do ordinarily in other Adverb Clauses ('When he is ill', 'Because he is ill', etc.). All Tenses may be used, and without any peculiarity, except that the Present sometimes refers to Future time.

	PRESENT TIME	PAST TIME	FUTURE TIME
<i>English</i>	if he is	if he was	if he is (= shall be)
<i>German</i>	wenn er ist	wenn er war	wenn er ist (=sein wird)
<i>Greek</i>	<i>ei êortl</i>	<i>ei êp</i>	<i>ei êortai</i> (or <i>êân ê</i> )
<i>Latin</i>	<i>sī est</i>	<i>sī erat</i>	<i>sī erit</i>
<i>French</i>	<i>s'il est</i>	<i>s'il était</i>	<i>s'il est</i> (=sera)

2. In Sentences of Class A there is no implication as to the fulfilment of the condition: they are quite colourless. When I say 'If you can convince me of this, then I confess myself wholly in the wrong', 'If it has thundered, it has also lightened', I do not mean to imply that you *can* convince me of this, or that it *has* thundered.

It is true that in some cases we say 'if' when the context shows that a *fact* is in our minds. 'If thy family is proud, mine, sir, is worthy' = 'Thy family is no doubt proud, but mine is worthy'. 'If Elizabeth was resolute for peace, England was resolute for war'. (Cf. the third sentence in § 54.2.) Again in some cases the Conditional Sentence as a whole may suggest that the speaker does not believe the supposition to be true: *e.g.* 'If this is so, I'm a Dutchman', 'Do it if you dare'. But in all these cases the If-Clause itself suggests nothing as to the actual state of the case; any implication of reality or unreality which the sentence contains, is due to the sentence as a whole or to the context.

3. In Clauses of Class B the If-Clause presents two peculiarities:—

(i) In all the languages considered above, a *readjustment of tense* takes place, the action of the verb being *thrown back\** in time.

(ii) In English, German, and Latin there is also a *readjustment of mood* (*Subjunctive for Indicative*), but not in Greek (except in Future time) and usually not in French.

	PRESENT TIME	PAST TIME	FUTURE TIME
<i>English</i>	if he were	if he had been	if he were to be
<i>German</i>	wenn er wäre	wenn er gewesen wäre	wenn er wäre
<i>Greek</i>	<i>ei êp</i>	<i>ei êp</i> (for Aorist)	<i>ei êp</i>
<i>Latin</i>	<i>sī essem</i>	<i>sī fuisset</i>	<i>sī sit</i>
<i>French</i>	<i>s'il était</i>	<i>s'il avait été</i> ( <i>s'il eût été</i> )	<i>s'il était</i>

\* Such conditions are *rejected* in two senses: (1) *negated*, (ii) *thrown back in time*.

56

## CLASS C.

There is a third class of Conditional Sentences, in which the Principal Clause is like that of Class A (*i.e.* does not speak of what *would be* or *would have been*), but the If-Clause marks the action as merely *contemplated* or *in prospect* and implies a certain *reserve* on the part of the speaker.

If this *be* so, we are all at fault.

[*Be* implies 'I do not say (or know) that it is'.]

If she *be* a traitor, why so am I.

*Should* you desire an interview, I shall not refuse to meet you.

If thou *read* this, O Caesar, thou mayest live.

If it *were* so, it was a grievous fault.

[*Were* implies 'I do not say (or know) that it was.']

If ever I *were* traitor,

My name be blotted from the book of life.

1. The If-Clause has the Subjunctive, or (in future time) its equivalent, *should* with Infin.
2. The Present Subj. refers to present and (sometimes) to future time.
3. The Past Subj. refers to past and to future time. (Cf. § 55.3.)

57a

## Modes of Introducing If-Clauses.

1. 'If' and 'unless' (= 'if not') are the commonest conjunctions employed to introduce If-Clauses.

'If' was often followed by 'that' in the older language. 'And,' a worn-down form of 'and' (and commonly so spelt in Shakspeare's time) was once a common introducing word = 'if'. 'Except' and 'but', formerly frequent in the sense 'unless,' are still found in archaic language.

*If that* you conquer,

I live to joy in your great triumph. — BYRON.

*If that* her breath will mist or stain the stone,

Why, then she lives. — SHAKSPEARE.

*An't* (= if it) please the gods, I'll hide my master from the flies.

No more of that, Hal, *an* thou lovest me.

I will not let thee go, *except* thou bless me. — Bible.

For every wight of hir manere

Might cacche ynogh, *if that* he wolde,

If he had eyen hir to beholde. — CHAUCER.

2. An If-Clause in Class B (or C) is sometimes expressed, as in German, by a simple inversion of Subject and Verb without a conjunction:

Were I = if I were.

Had I = If I had.

*Had he ever so many faults, I should still be his friend.  
Should it be wet, I shall stay at home.*

3. Alternative Clauses of Condition are introduced by 'whether . . . or' (= 'if . . . or if').

4. The following are often used as equivalents of a Conditional Conjunction :—

(i) 'provided (that)' = 'if only,' 'supposing (that),' 'in case,' 'on condition (that).' The first two of these phrases may be employed to introduce any class of If-Clause; the last two in Clauses implying a reserve (Class C), in which class all four may take the Subjunctive or Indicative without appreciable difference of meaning :

I give my consent, *provided that he goes* (or *go*) *immediately.*  
(Class A or C.)

*Supposing it happens* (or *happen*), what shall you do?  
(Class A or C.)

*Supposing it happened*, what should you do? (Class B.)

*Supposing he is not at home*, what then? (Class A.)

They were always ready *in case they should be wanted.* (Cl. C.)

(ii) 'so that', 'so long as' in colloquial speech have sometimes the meaning 'if only' :

You won't fall *so that* (or *so long as*) *you hold on tight.*

The older language used 'so' in this sense, e.g. 'Let them hate me *so* they fear me.' 'I am content *so thou wilt have it so.*'

5. The If-Clause is frequently elliptical and consists only of the Conjunction and the emphatic word or phrase ;

*If necessary*, we must go elsewhere.

[i.e. *If it is or be necessary to go.*]

*Whether good or evil*, you will have to put up with it.

[i.e. *Whether it is or be good or evil.*]

## 57b

### Equivalents of an If-Clause.

Two Co-ordinate Sentences, the first of which is a Command (or a Concession) may be equivalent to a Conditional Sentence.

*Tell me a liar*, and I'll tell you a thief.

*See a pin and let it lie*,

You'll want a pin before you die.

*Bid me discourse*, I will enchant thine ear.—SHAKSPERE.

*Live thou*, I live.—SHAKSPERE.

Concessive Clauses (§ 46, g).

1. In Concessive Clauses which imply a fact the verb is in the Indicative Mood :

*Although you are rich,*  
*Rich though you are,*  
*Rich as you are,* } you are not happy.

*Though he talks a great deal,* there is not much  
in what he says.

*Boy as he was,* they looked to him as their leader.

*Few though they were,* the English fought desperately.

Obs.—A Predicate Noun or Adjective (and occasionally an Object) may come first in the Clause ; this inversion is emphatic.

2. In Concessive Clauses which refer to future time (whether from a present or past point of view) or in which the action is contemplated or in prospect it is common to use the Subjunctive mood, or its equivalent *should*, with the Infinitive. The Indicative, however, is often employed without any appreciable difference of meaning.

Murder, *though it have* no tongue, will out.

*Though everyone desert* (should desert, deserts) you,  
I will not.

*Though he should fail this time,* he can but try again.

*Though your sins be* as scarlet, they shall be as white as  
snow.—*Bible.*

It is interesting to compare some of the different versions of *Mark* xiv. 29, where the authorized version of 1611 has ‘Although all shall be offended, yet will not I.’ Three of the 16th century versions have ‘Though all men should be offended, yet would not I’; here the principal clause is like that in Conditional sentences of Class B. The earliest of the versions (Tyndale’s) has ‘Though all men be offended, yet will not I.’

In early periods of the language the Subjunctive was commonly used in the Subordinate Clause in all cases.

3. There is a class of Concessive Clause, formerly common but now of very limited range, in which the verb in the Subjunctive comes first. This is now used only with the Present tense and in sentences like the following, where the Subject of the Subjunctive has a Relative Clause attached :

We cannot receive him, *be he who he may.*

**Cost** *what it may* . . . [= Though it may cost any amount].

The following is an old example :

The deaf adder . . . which refuseth to hear the voice of the charmer, **charm** *he never so wisely*.—*Psalm lviii*.

The word-order may be accounted for by the fact that the Clause has retained the form of the independent sentence (*Be it what it may* = 'let it be what it may') and indeed is still felt to have a certain independent character.

### 58b                    **Equivalents of a Concessive Clause.**

1. Where the Subjects of the Principal and the Concessive Clauses are identical, the Concessive Clause may become elliptical and shrink down to the Conjunction and the emphatic word or phrase of the Clause. Thus *though*, *although*, with a Noun, Adjective, or Adverb (or their equivalents) are frequent equivalents of a Concessive Clause (cf. § 57a.5) :

His critics, *though outvoted*, have not been silenced.

*Though no fighter*, he is not a coward.

It is unfortunate, *though very natural*.

2. A Present Participle may have a concessive force: e.g.  
*Sleeping or waking* must I still prevail.—SHAKS.

### 59                    **Comparative Clauses (§ 46, h).**

1. Comparative Clauses as a rule take the Indicative :

Thou art no more prince *than she is queen*.

He is as wise *as you are foolish*.

*The more learned a man is*, the more modest he is.

It is not so easy *as you think*.

You will find these dates taste better *than they look*.

OBS. Both clauses may be very elliptical, especially in colloquial and proverbial language: '*The more*, the merrier', '*The sooner*, the better', '*The nearer the bone*, the sweeter the meat.'

2. A part of the Comparative Clause is often omitted, leaving only sufficient to indicate the person or thing with which the comparison is made. Such a clause may be called a *Contracted Comparative Clause*. The Case of a noun or noun-equiv. following *than* is determined by mentally supplying the verb :

Thou canst not love so dear *as I*. [= *as I can love*.]

It concerns you as much *as me*. [= *as it concerns me*.]

A living dog is better *than a dead lion*. [= *than a dead lion is*.]

She is taller *than I*. [= *than I am*].

I wandered lonely *as a cloud*.

Quick *as thought*, he snatched them from the flames.

But **a Relative after 'than' always stands in the Accusative :**

They were of the old martial stock, *than whom better men never will draw sword for King and country*.

Beelzebub . . . *than whom none higher sat*.—MILTON.

A domineering pedant o'er the boy,

*Than whom no mortal so magnificent*.—SHAKS.

Obs.—Sentences like 'Is she as tall as *me*?' though grammatically unjustifiable are common enough in colloquial speech. Compare 'It is *me*' (§ 25. 4). The sentence quoted occurs in Shakspeare (*Antony and Cleop.* 3. 3. 14).

**10** A Contracted Comparative Clause may contain a clause subordinated to itself; thus we may get a *that*-, *if*- or *though*-clause subordinated to *as* or *than*.

1. A *that*-clause subordinated to *than* takes the Subjunctive, or, more commonly, its equivalent, *should* with the Infinitive.

I desire nothing more *than that you should come*.

Rather *than (that) he should suffer*, I will go myself.

It is of greater importance that the treatment be clear *than that it be complete*.

The type of such sentences is found in the first example given; it is elliptical for 'I desire nothing more than I desire that you should come.' The construction has thence been extended to other cases, as in the second example. Note the use of the Infinitive as an equivalent for the *that*-clause: 'I desire nothing more than *for you to come*', 'Rather than *let him suffer*, I will go myself.' Cf. §§ 68d, 69.

2. An *if*-clause subordinated to *as* or *than* takes the Past Subjunctive :

I am much happier *than if I were rich*.

I am not so happy *as if I were at home*.

**b** He is too wise *to do this*.

This is equivalent in meaning to a sentence containing a Comparative Clause, as is shown by the way in which it would be expressed in other languages: German 'Er ist zu klug, als dass er dies täte' (= too wise *than* that he should do this); Latin 'Prudentior est quam ut hoc faciat' (= he is wiser *than* that he



should do this); Greek *σωφρονέστερός ἐστὶν ἢ ὥστε ποιεῖν τοῦτο* (= wiser *than* as to do this). But, in form, the English sentence is a Simple one, and the Infinitive must be taken as an adverbial adjunct to *wise*, expressing the extent of the person's wisdom. French has a similar construction: 'Il est trop prudent *pour faire ceci*.'

- 60c** LIKE as a conjunction.—The use of *like* as a conjunction = *as*, e.g. '*like* I do', '*like* he was', 'the sun was setting just *like* it is now', is frequent as a loose colloquialism, but is avoided by careful speakers and writers. Historically it is shortened from *like as*, e.g. '*Like as* a father pitieth his children, so the Lord pitieth them that fear him.' (The word *like* here properly belongs to the principal clause, and is an adverb = 'in like manner': *As* a father pitieth his children, so *in like manner* the Lord pitieth them that fear him.)

### Absolute Clauses.

- 61a** Absolute Clauses are clauses in which the Predicate is formed with a Participle instead of a Finite Verb, and which are equivalent in meaning to Adverb Clauses of Time, Reason, Condition, or Concession, or to an Adverbial Phrase expressing Attendant Circumstance. Such a group is called 'Absolute' [Latin *absolutus* = free], because in construction it seems to be free of the rest of the sentence.

1. In modern English, the Case of the Absolute Clause is the Nominative (**Nominative Absolute**), as is evident when a pronoun is the subject of the clause:

I will come, *weather permitting*. [i.e. *if weather permits*:  
**Clause of Condition.**]

A meeting will be held, *God willing*, next week.

*This done*, we went home. [i.e. *When this was done*:  
**Clause of Time.**]

*The signal being* (or *having been*) *given*, we set off.

*It being very cold*, we made a fire. [i.e. *Because it was very cold*:  
**Clause of Reason.**]

*She failing in her promise*, I have been diverting my chagrin.—SHERIDAN.

Away go the two vehicles, *horses galloping, boys cheering, horns playing loud*. [i.e. *with horses galloping, etc.*:  
**Attendant Circumstance.**]

2. The Absolute Clause is often elliptical by the omission of the Participle:

*The ceremony over, the crowd dispersed.*

*Sword in hand, he faced his foe.*

And, *thou away, the birds are mute.*—SHAKSPERE.

3. Except for stereotyped phrases like 'weather permitting,' 'God willing,' the colloquial use of the Nominative Absolute is almost restricted to *it being . . . , there being . . .* (e.g. '*There being no apparent obstacle, the march was continued*'). Its use with a pronoun as subject is limited apparently to cases in which *being* or *having* is the Participle (e.g. '*They having the keys, no entrance was possible*'). But poetical usage is freer; Tennyson, for example, writes: '*We sitting, as I said, the cock crew loud.*'

4. The equivalent of an Absolute Clause exemplified in the following quotation is rare and poetical:

How can *ye* chant *ye* little birds,  
And *I* see *fu' o' care?*—BURNS.

But in illiterate language there is a similar construction with the Accusative: 'How could the room be cleaned, *and me with my rheumatism?*'

**61b Caution.**—Avoid the error of using a Participle which has no Subject of reference in the sentence, or which, if referred to its grammatical subject, makes nonsense. This mistake is not uncommonly made when a writer intends to use the Absolute construction.

*Calling upon him last summer, he kindly offered to give me his copy.* [Say: When I called.]

*Being stolen, the Bank of England refused to honour the note.* [Say: *It being stolen*; or better: *The note being stolen, the Bank of England refused to honour it.*]

*Having left daughters only, the property was sold for the immense sum of £135,000.*—BOSWELL, 1765. [Say: *He or she having left.*]

*Looking out for a theme, several crossed his mind.* [Who was looking out? Not 'several,' certainly.]

*Being a long-headed gentlewoman, I am apt to imagine she has some further designs than you have yet penetrated.*—*Spectator*, 1711.

The only case in which it is permissible to omit the subject in an Absolute Clause, is when the unexpressed subject is indefinite (= one, people, French *on*).

*Taking everything into consideration, our lot is not a happy one.* [Taking = one taking, *i.e.* if one takes.]

*Counting (or Including) ourselves, ten persons went.* [Counting = if one counts.]

Nearly the whole of the work of a laundry is done *standing*.

These prayers are to be said *kneeling*. [= the people kneeling.]

How such instances as these have been further developed is shown in § 61 c, 4 (i).

The Absolute construction seems in all periods to have been felt to be foreign to the genius of English, and consequently usage has considerably fluctuated (*e.g.* in the case employed), while its use has often given rise to vagueness and confusion of expression.

### 61c HISTORICAL NOTE ON THE ABSOLUTE PARTICIPIAL CONSTRUCTION.

1. In English, as in other languages, the Participial Adverb Clause is in origin a simple Adverbial Adjunct, consisting of a noun or noun-equivalent in an oblique case with a participle in agreement with it, and denoting an attendant circumstance, cause, condition, etc. In Old English the participial group was put in the **dative** case; thus '*ƒow slāpendum forstælon thone lichaman*' = 'for you sleeping, they stole away the body', *i.e.* 'while you slept'. Compare Latin '*urbe captā, rediit domum*' = 'with the city taken, he returned home,' *i.e.* 'the city having been taken,' 'when, as, or since the city was taken'. In course of time the case-meaning in English became obscured, and the group assumed the form of a clause with a subject in the **nominative** case and a predicate containing a participle, equivalent in meaning to an adverbial clause but having no apparent syntactical connexion with the principal clause.

2. The nature of the origin of the construction evidently precluded the possibility of the subject of both clauses referring to the same person or thing. Hence the rarity and awkwardness of such a sentence as: '*Our guest at last arriving, he* was called upon to sing'. (Change the construction by omitting *he*.)

3. The construction is distinctly alien to English. It has been shown that in Old English it appears as a direct imitation of the Latin Ablative Absolute, and that in Middle English it is mainly due to French, Italian, and classical influence.\* In Wyclif's translation of the Bible, for example, the Latin construction is simply imitated, *e.g.* in *S. John* viii. 30 '*Hyn spekyng̃e this thingis*' [= Vulgate: *haec illo loquente*] 'manye bileveden into him.' In Chaucer we find chiefly French and Italian influence at work. When we come to Sir Thomas Malory (about 1480) we find the construction fully developed with the Nominative Case, but it is infrequent. (Example: 'There came into his halle, he syttyng̃e in his throne ryal, xij auncyen men'.) In early modern English its use is extensive only with classicists, but in Shakspeare and the Elizabethan dramatists generally it is very frequent and in a great variety of forms, many of which would be impossible now. (See Shakspeare *Temp.* 5, i. 100, 2 *Hen.* VI. i. 1, 166, *Hen.* VIII. 2, i. 42, *Cymb.* 2, 4, 7, *All's Well*, 5, 3, 47.) Restoration times saw the construction naturalised and made a part of the syntax of the language. (Milton's *me overthrown, him des-*

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See Morgan Callaway, Jr. *The Absolute Participle in Anglo-Saxon* (Baltimore 1889); C. H. Ross, *The Absolute Participle in Middle and Modern English* in *Publications of the Modern Language Association of America*, vol. VIII (1), no. 3, 1893.

*troyed, us dispossessed* are mere Latinisms.) Clarendon uses it frequently in his *History of the Rebellion*, and in his narrative style it has often obvious advantages over the ordinary clause-form.

Due in its present use, partly (perhaps) to a reminiscence of the old Dative Absolute, partly to foreign influence, it is retained mainly on account of its flexibility, which, however, is not infrequently the source of error. For the avoidance of mistakes in its use, it should be borne in mind that its nature is adverbial, and for that reason an oblique case is appropriate to it, though this fact is disguised by its present form.

“The stylistic effect of the absolute participle in Middle English is about the same as in Anglo-Saxon; where it occurred it gave freedom and movement to the sentence, but its artificial character always kept it from being felt. In modern English there is a different condition of things. Here it is an important adjunct to style, to which it imparts variety and compactness. It gives life and movement to the sentence, and is the ready resource of all writers of narration and description for the purpose of expressing subordinate conceptions.” †

4. In the Absolute Construction have originated certain expressions which are equivalent to Prepositions or Conjunctions. They have arisen in three different ways:—

(i) From an active participle with a vague subject implied (as ‘one’, ‘people’ = French *on*). Of this kind are *barring, considering, excepting, including, owing (to), regarding, respecting, seeing, touching*. When these are used to govern whole clauses, they perform the work of a conjunction.

*Considering* his abilities, he should have done better.

*Seeing* (that) you are here, you may as well stay.

Here *considering* and *seeing* may be paraphrased as ‘when or if one considers (sees)’.

(ii) From an active participle having a noun (or noun-equivalent) in agreement. To this class belong the prepositions *during, pending, notwithstanding*. Of these, *during* and *pending* are the English adaptations of French *durant* and *pendant*, which were frequently used in the absolute construction *cela durant* = ‘this during or lasting’, *ce pendant* = ‘this pending or awaiting decision’ (now written one word *cependant*, and meaning ‘however’). These phrases might equally be written *durant cela, pendant cela*, which led subsequently to the participles being regarded as prepositions, and it is as such that they function in modern French. The history of their English representatives is exactly similar.

*Notwithstanding* is an actual translation of the French *nonobstant*, which has a prepositional use only, while by ellipsis *notwithstanding* has come to be a sentence-adverb also. Observe that we may still say *this notwithstanding*, preserving the old form and order of the participial construction.

(iii) From a passive participle with a noun (a noun-equivalent) in agreement. To this class belong *except* and *provided*. *Except* is taken from French *excepté*; *cela excepté* (= that excepted) gave ‘except this’, just as *cela durant* gave ‘during this’. The change in the grammatical character of *except* probably began before the 16th century; it may possibly have been felt sometimes as an imperative, in the same way that *bar* is now, ‘two to one bar one.’

†C. H. Ross, *loc. cit.*

Like some of class (1), *except* may also govern a whole clause and thus form a conjunction-equivalent. *Provided*, representing French *pourvu*, is used only in this way, and not as a preposition.

There exist now but these two expressions belonging to this class, whereas the older periods had *considered*, *supposed*, *seen* (=F. *considéré*, *supposé*, *vu*), English for some reason has retained the corresponding active forms, *considering*, *supposing*, *seeing* (*that*). We have the pairs: *excepting*, *except*, *providing*, *provided*.

#### ADJECTIVE CLAUSES (§ 13).

- 62 Adjective Clauses are introduced by Relative Pronouns (*who*, *what*, *which*, *whoever*, *whatever*, *whichever*, *that*, *as*), Relative Adjectives (*which*, *what*, *whichever*, *whatever*), or Relative Adverbs (*when*, *where*, *whereat*, etc., *how*, *why*, *as*), referring to a noun or noun-equivalent called the Antecedent, expressed or implied in the Principal Clause.

OBS.—The words *when*, *where*, *as* are Relative Adverbs when they merely define an Antecedent expressed or implied in the Principal Clause (*when* = *at which time*, *where* = *in which place*, *as* = *in which manner*); e.g. ‘at a time *when* (= at which)’, ‘a little village *where* (= at or in which)’, ‘in the same way *as* (= in which) you did before’. In such instances, the time, place, or manner is already fixed in the *Principal* Clause, as in the above example by *at a time*, *a village*, *the same*, and the *Subordinate* Clause is merely an adjectival addition to these expressions. In cases, however, where the *Subordinate* Clause fixes the time, place, or manner of the action of the *Principal* Clause, *when*, *where*, and *as* are Conjunctions; (such an Adverb-clause may, however, be *resumed* by a correlative adverb in the *Principal* Clause; e.g. ‘Wheresoever the carcass is, *there* will the eagles be gathered together’). For examples, see §§ 47-8.

A practical test is given by the fact that an *adjective clause introduced by when, where, or as cannot precede the entire principal clause, while an adverb clause so introduced may do so*.

- 63a **Agreement of the Relative.** The Relative agrees as far as possible in Gender, Number, and Person with its Antecedent; but its Case depends on the part it plays (as Subject, Object, etc.) in its own Clause.

*Who* is the only Relative that is declinable (Accus. *whom*, Genitive *whose*).

The man *who* (or *that*) *wrote this book* is now famous.

He *who is virtuous* is wise; and he *who is wise* is good; and he *who is good* is happy.

He jests at scars *that never felt a wound*. [Antecedent is *he*.]  
 The day, *which opened brightly*, closed with a violent storm.  
 The people *whom* (or *that*) *we saw yesterday* were Nihilists.  
 Edison is an inventor *whose fame is world-wide*.  
 This is the same dog *that we saw yesterday*.  
 Bees like the same odours *as we do*.  
*What I have written*, I have written. [*what = that which*.]  
 They took *what spoil they could find*. [*what spoil = that spoil which*.]

Obs.—In the two last sentences the Relative Clause has virtually passed into a Noun Clause. (Cf. ‘Happen *what might*, § 43.)

Examples with Relative Adverbs :

I know a bank *where the wild thyme grows*.

It was a time *when sedition was rife*.

*As the tree falls*, so shall it lie.

It is as *I said*.

Do as you are *bid*.

**Cautions.**—1. In sentences like ‘There’s Mr. Jones, *who* they declare is the richest man about here’, the Relative is sometimes treated as if it were the object of ‘say’, *whom* being substituted for *who*; whereas the Relative is the subject of ‘is’, and ‘they say’ is a parenthetical sentence inserted in the midst of the relative clause. But, of course, we may change the construction and make ‘declare’ the verb of the Relative Clause having an accusative and infinitive dependent on it; thus: ‘There’s Mr. J., *whom* they declare *to be* the richest man . . .’ Cf. § 79.

2. Conversely, avoid the mistake of putting the nominative in such a case as ‘They were a people *whom* it was not perfectly safe to attack’, where the Relative is the object of the infin. ‘to attack’. Test the correctness of your sentence by inverting the order thus: ‘to attack whom was not perfectly safe’,—a possible form of the clause, but awkward.

**63b Agreement of the Verb of the Relative Clause.** The Verb agrees in Number and Person with the Relative when this is the Subject of the Clause.

I, *who understand* your reasons, will support you.

O Thou *who art* our sure defence.

It is you *who are* to blame.

**Caution.**—Be careful to observe this rule in cases like the following, where mistakes are not uncommon.

That is one of the few good books *that have been written this year*. [Antecedent is *books*, not *one*: therefore *have*, not *has*.]

OBS.—Where the antecedent is a predicate noun with the verb *to be* in the Principal Clause, the relative is sometimes attracted to the person of the subject of the latter.

*Thou art the Muse, who far from crowded cities  
Hauntest the sylvan streams.*

*I am the person who have had some demand upon the gentleman of the house.*

The following is an interesting example: in *Psalms* lxxvii. 14, the 1611 Bible has 'Thou art the God that *doest* wonders'; the Prayer Book version (which is of the 16th century) has *doeth*.

### 63c Two Kinds of Relative Clauses.

Relative Clauses may be used for two purposes:—

(a) to help to limit or define more clearly the antecedent, which without the Relative Clause would in some cases make no sense, and in others convey quite a different sense from that intended:

*This is the house that Jack built.*

*Uneasy lies the head that wears a crown.*

In such cases the Relative Clause is introduced by *that*, except after a preposition or where *whose* is required; no comma is used to separate the Relative Clause from its Antecedent; and the Relative may be omitted in the usual way (see below § 64).

This kind of Clause is mostly used where the Antecedent is presented as belonging to a class, and is hence naturally found after a superlative or after a restricting pronoun or adjective like *all*, *some*, *any*, *the*, *no*, etc.:

*All that live must die.*

*The greatest historian (that) we have ever had.*

*These are some of the cases (that) I have noticed.*

*Adrian IV. was the only Englishman that was ever Pope.*

(b) to give some additional information about an antecedent which is already sufficiently defined:

*A brother of his, who has a candle factory, is rolling in riches.*

*These books, which are only a small part of my collection, I picked up in France.*

*I gave him a shilling, which was all I had with me.*

In such cases the Relative Clause must be introduced by *who* (*whom*), *which*; a comma separates the Relative from its Antecedent; and the Relative cannot be omitted.

Generally speaking, the Relative pronoun is equivalent to a

Conjunction + a Demonstrative or Personal Pronoun: *who* = *and* (or *but*) *he, she*; *which* = *and* (or *but*) *it, that*, etc. In fact, in the spoken language, these co-ordinating forms are usually preferred, which makes the number of sentences of class (*b*) considerably smaller than those of class (*a*). The co-ordinating nature of the relative comes out very clearly when *which* refers to a whole sentence (see *Relatives*, § 252). But in the written language the need of discrimination between the two classes described is often felt, and the non-observance of the distinction is liable to lead to misunderstanding. Example: 'All the members of the Council, who were also members of the Education Board, were to assemble in the Board-room.' This would naturally imply that all members of the Council were members of the Education Board. 'That', instead of 'who', would clearly express the meaning intended, which is that 'those who are members of the Education Board as well as of the Council were to assemble'. If we retain *who*, the omission of the comma after 'Council' is sufficient, *who* then referring, in accordance with general practice, to persons (see below).

Observe the significance of the distinction in the following: 'In two of the instances, *which* have come under my notice, the system has worked well'; 'In two of the instances *that* have come under my notice, the system has worked well'. The first means: 'Two of the instances have come under my notice; in those instances the system has worked well'. The second means 'Instances have come under my notice; in two of these the system has worked well'.\*

The tendency to appropriate *who* and *which* to persons and things respectively often outweighs other considerations; thus, 'People *who* live in glass houses' is preferred to 'people *that*'; this is particularly the case with *those, they*, and other pronouns of common gender. 'Those *who* are in favour of this motion', is more usual than 'those *that*.'

The following couplet from Goldsmith is interesting as showing the two constructions occurring side by side with no difference of meaning:

For just experience tells, in every soil,  
That *those who think* must govern *those that toil*.

---

\* It may be noted that, in speech, *which* might be used in either case, and the sense would be quite adequately conveyed by the intonation and stress of the sentence.



**64 Omission of the Relative.**—In modern English prose the Relative pronoun is omitted, generally speaking, only when it is the Object of the Clause. In the spoken language the tendency is to omit the Relative as much as possible, and to prefer (e.g.) ‘the book I am reading’ to ‘the book that I am reading.’ In the written language its omission is often felt to be undignified.

But the Relative is also omitted when it is the Subject of its Clause:—

(i.) in colloquial speech, after *there is, it is, who is?*:

There was a woman *called this afternoon.*

There’s somebody at the door *wants to see you.*

It’s an ill wind *blows nobody good.*

Who is that *called just now?* [This avoids saying ‘that that’, or ‘that who’.]

Compare There is no power in Venice

*Can alter a decree established.*—SHAKSPERE.

(ii.) in poetry and the older language, without restriction:

What words are these *have fallen from me?*—TENNYSON.

I know a charm *shall make thee meek and tame.*—SHELLEY.

These Londoners have got a gibberish with them *would confound a gipsy.*—SHERIDAN.

I have a brother *is condemned to die.*—SHAKSPERE.

**64b Omission of the Antecedent** is much less common, and chiefly poetical:

To help *who want*, to forward *who excel.*—POPE.

He helped to bury *whom he helped to starve.*—POPE.

i.e. *those who, those whom.*

The following lines are noteworthy;

There is a book *who runs may read*,

Which heavenly truth imparts.—KEBLE.

(= There is a book *which he who runs may read.*)

This occasionally leads to the **Attraction** of the Relative into the case of the omitted Antecedent:

Vengeance is his or *whose he sole appoints.*—MILTON.

[*whose = his whom.*]

Conversely the Antecedent may be attracted into the case of the omitted Relative (**Inverse Attraction**):

When him *we serve*’s away.—SHAKSPERE. [*him = he whom.*]

For the various uses of Relatives, see § § 247-256.

**65 Moods in Relative Clauses.**—As in other languages, the verb in Relative Clauses may be in any mood or tense which is possible in Principal Clauses; but—

(a) Ever-Clauses (General Relative Clauses), i.e. those introduced by *whoever, whatever, whichever*, etc., especially when the

action is to be marked as prospective take the Subjunctive, or more commonly *may* (*might*), *shall* (*should*) with the Infinitive :

*Whatever the cause be*, the author has hardly done justice to his subject.

*Whatever its other merits be*, that is not one of them.

If thou do pardon *whosoever pray*.—SHAKS.

*Whatever you may say*, I shall not change my opinion.

*However much he might try*, he could not succeed.

He shall be punished, be he *who* (= whoever) *he may*.

Do *whatever shall seem good to you*.

Note that the Indicative (without adjustment of tense) is used with the same meaning :

Let him say *what he likes*. [*likes* = *shall like*].

*Whatever you do*, let it be just.

(b) Relative Clauses with Final or Consecutive meaning sometimes take *shall* (*should*), equivalent to the Latin Subjunctive:

Build me straight a goodly vessel

*That shall laugh at all disaster*.—LONGFELLOW.

An act might be passed *which should not entirely condemn the practice*.

[In the last sentence *did* instead of *should* would be less formal.]

A common equivalent of such an Adjective Clause is the Infinitive :

He had nothing *to say* [= which he should say, Lat. *quod diceret*.]

I am not the man *to be frightened by such a threat* [Lat. *qui terrear*.]

5b Note also :

There is every reason *why* (= for which) *he should be displeased*. [Equiv. *for his being displeased*.]

5c An *if*- or *though*-clause subordinated to the Relative Adverb *as* takes the Past Subjunctive :

The stones did rattle underneath

*As if Cheapside were mad*. [i.e. *as they would rattle if C. were mad*].

You look *as if you had been frightened*.

They argue *as if (though) the matter were doubtful*.

He felt *as if he were being suffocated*.

OBS.—*As* = *as if* was common in the older language, and is found as an archaism in modern poetry :

Ride *as* the wolves of Appenine

**Were** all upon thy track.—MACAULAY.

NOUN CLAUSES (§ 13).

66 Noun Clauses fall into two great classes:—

**A.** Those that express **that** something *is* (*was, will be*) or **that** something *shall* or *should be*.

(i) I know that you are just.

Such sentences are in origin two co-ordinate or paratactic sentences (see Part II, *Parataxis* and *Hypotaxis*):

You are just: I know *that* (demonstrative pronoun: cf. German *das* and *dass*).

Here the *that*-clause contains a statement of fact, and is called a **Dependent Statement**.

(ii) I command { that you should act justly.  
(less commonly) that you act justly.

This also is the product of two co-ordinate sentences:

You should act justly: I command *that*.

Here the *that*-clause expresses what *should be*, and is called a **Dependent Command** (= Clause of Desire).

Obs.—The *should* in these clauses had originally independent meaning and was equivalent to 'ought', but that meaning became weakened as a result of hypotactic development (§ 296) and now it stands as a substitute for the simple Subjunctive.

**B.** Those which are introduced by an interrogative or exclamatory word:

(i) Tell me what you said. = Tell me: What said you?

I ask whether it is fair. = I ask: whether is it fair (or not)?

Here the subordinate Clause is interrogative and is called a **Dependent Question**. Note that the sentence as a whole is not a Question but a Statement; a Dependent Question may be defined as a *Question Clause in a Complex sentence, or a Noun Clause introduced by an interrogative word*.

The verb on which a Question Clause depends need not be a verb of 'asking': e.g. I do not know whether you are just = I do not know the answer to the question 'Are you just?'

(ii) It is strange how unjust you are.

= It is strange: How unjust you are!

Here the Subordinate Clause is exclamatory and is called a **Dependent Exclamation**, the sentence as a whole being a Statement.

*Note 1.* In O.E. all Noun Clauses took the Subjunctive except those in which fact was implied. This is kept up to this day in the literary language.

*Note 2.* Formerly the subject of a Noun Clause was sometimes anticipated by an accusative constituting an object to the principal verb; e.g. 'They who watch see *time* how slow *it* creeps' (SHAKS. *Lucrece*), instead of 'see how slow *time* creeps.' 'I know *you* not whence *ye* are' (*Bible*).

A Noun Clause may play the part of:—

1. Subject: *That you are unjust* is clear. (Or, with Formal Subject *it*: It is clear *that you are unjust*.)

2. Object: I declare *that you are unjust*.

3. Noun in apposition to or in dependence on a noun or pronoun in the Principal Clause:

My hope is *that you will not be unjust*.

The fact *that he is a traitor* is well known.

See to this, *that you be just*.

4. Adjunct: I rejoice *that you are not unjust*. (Cf. I rejoice *at this*.)

## 67 A. Dependent Statements and Dependent Commands.

The following constructions are used:—

1. *That* with a Verb in the same mood as in the corresponding independent Sentence, but with adjustment of tense if necessary (see § 155):

I confess *that I am wrong*

He was afraid *that he would be ill*.

It happened *that he had just come*.

2. *That* (or, in some cases, *lest*) with the Subjunctive or a Subjunctive-equivalent (usually formed with *shall*, *should*, in certain cases with *may*, *might*):

I insist *that he be allowed his freedom*.

We ordered *that he should be released*.

We fear *lest we may lose our way*.

3. An Accusative and Infinitive:

That proved *me to be right*.

He declared *himself to be a true subject*.

Bid *me do anything for you*.

Tell *him to go*.

How these constructions are employed in connexion with particular verbs, adjectives, etc., will be shown in the following sections.

**68a** VERBS OF 'SAYING,' 'THINKING,' 'PERCEIVING,' 'KNOWING,'  
AND 'SHOWING'.

These verbs take (a) either *that* with a Finite Verb :

I tell you *that you are mistaken*.

He denied *that he had done it*.

The telegram says *that he is on the way*.

They have confessed *that they are in the wrong*.

Do you think *you could manage it?*

I believe *we shall have rain*.

You will see *that the prisoner is innocent*.

I know *that I should not be successful*.

It was proved *that this could not have happened*.

[Formal Subject : § 2.]

*That such an event might happen* cannot be disputed.

or (b) an Accusative and Infinitive, except 'say', 'tell', and a few others :

Everyone declared (reported, believed, knew) *him to be innocent*.

Few have thought (proved, shown) *themselves to be worthy of the honour*.

I took *him to be one who had been shipwrecked like myself*.

OBS.—Early Mod. Eng. usage was much freer ; e.g. Isaac Walton (1653 A.D.) could write : Bacon observes *the pike to be the longest-lived* of any freshwater fish.

2. Equivalent expressions like the following may take a *that*-clause only : adjectives—(I am) *sure, certain*, etc. ; (it is) *certain, clear, manifest*, etc. ; nouns—(there is a) *rumour, certainty, doubt*, (the) *knowledge, thought, proof*, etc. ; (on the) *ground, condition, understanding, supposition*, etc. :

It was clear *that he had no chance*.

The thought *that he might miss the train* was galling.

These were unmistakable proofs *that he had been there*.

3. The verb TO DOUBT in an interrogative or negative sentence may take *but that* or (simply) *but*, with the same meaning as the ordinary *that* :

I do not doubt *but that you are surprised*.

Who doubted *but the catastrophe was over?*

This construction was formerly much commoner than now (when it is only in literary use and somewhat archaic), and accompanied *to despair, to scruple, to make no question* and similar expressions.

4. The verbs TO HOPE and TO EXPECT, from the nature of their meaning, take a future in the *that*-clause.

I expect (or hope) *we shall come*.

We may sometimes have *should* with the Infin. as a subjunctive-equivalent in present time :

Providence furnishes materials, but expects *that we should work them up ourselves*.

The Accusative and Infinitive may be used as an equivalent construction :

I expect *you to join us* (= *that you will join us*).

So with 'look for' = 'expect' :

I look for *you to join us*.

When the subject of both principal and subordinate clauses is the same, the infinitive (with *to*) may be used as an equivalent.

I hope *to come* = I hope (*that*) *I shall come*.

They expected *to be victorious* = They expected (*that*) *they would be victorious*.

Obs.—'Expect' in the colloquial sense of 'suppose' may be followed by any kind of *that*-clause.

I expect *he is (was, will be, etc.) away*.

### 68b IMPERSONAL VERBS OF 'HAPPENING' AND 'SEEMING'.

These verbs take a *that*-clause (as in 68 a) :

It happened *that I was away at the time*.

[Formal Subject: § 2.]

It seems *that you had forgotten me*.

It appears *that he had been ill*.

Equivalent expressions: nouns—(it is a) *fact*; (there is a) *probability, likelihood*, etc.; adjectives—(it is) *probable, likely*:

There is every possibility *that the government will be defeated*.

It is probable *that they will never return*.

### 68c VERBS OF 'REJOICING', 'GRIEVING', 'WONDERING', 'COMPLAINING'.

These verbs take a *that*-clause (as in § 68 a) :

I rejoiced *that I had won a victory*.

Many wondered *that he was not elected*.

He complained *that he had been badly treated*.

But where the speaker contemplates the *thought* of something happening rather than its actually happening, the *that*-clause takes *should*: for instance—

I grieved *that you should be so angry.*

It cannot be wondered at *that he should have been so anxious.*

In Latin in these cases we have the Accus. and Infin. or *quod* with the Subjunctive (as opposed to *quod* with the Indicative); in French *que* with the Subjunctive (as opposed to *de ce que* = 'at the fact that' with the Indicative).

The above verbs are not so commonly in use as expressions of equivalent or kindred meaning: nouns—(it is a) *pity, piece of good fortune, good thing, misfortune, etc.*; adjectives—(I am) *glad, sorry, grieved, angry, surprised, etc.*; (it is) *strange, wonderful, fortunate, unfortunate, etc.*:

*That he has acted thus* is a great misfortune, but *that he should have acted thus* is not surprising.

We are glad *that you are able to come.*

She is annoyed *that you are going.*

It is not strange *that his admiration for those writers should have been unbounded.*

**68d** IMPERSONAL EXPRESSIONS DENOTING 'IT IS RIGHT', 'IT IS WRONG', 'IT IS NECESSARY', AND (in negative and interrogative sentences) 'IT IS POSSIBLE.'

These expressions take a *that*-clause with the Subjunctive, or much more commonly, an equivalent, with *should*:

It is right

It is not right

Is it right?

Is it possible *that he should be so foolish?*

It is good *that a young man bear the yoke in his youth.*

But where 'is it possible?' expresses surprise at something having happened, the Indicative is used:

Is it possible *that he has left (can have left) England?*

EQUIVALENT.

A common equivalent of the *that*-clause is 'for' governing an Accusative and Infinitive:

It is wrong *for you to do this (= that you should do this).*

It is impossible *for one to be angry with him.*

What could be better than *for you to go?*

(Cf. Greek *τί καλλίον ἔστιν ἢ ἕτερον ἑτέρῳ ἀμύνειν*; What is better than for one to defend another?)

So with expressions of kindred meaning:

There is every reason *for him to be displeased.*

Shakspeare has 'There's reason *he should be displeased at it*'. We should now prefer to say 'reason why' (see § 65b).

68e The Verb TO FEAR and equivalent expressions take *that* or *lest* followed by the Future, or *may* (*might*) with the Infin. :

We { fear } *lest* we { may } *lose our way.*  
 { feared } *or that* { might }

I am afraid *I shall be late.*

There was every fear *that we should fail.*

In these sentences the fear relates to the future ; a fear almost amounting to an anxious conviction that something *is, was, or will be* the case is expressed with a *that*-clause as in 68a :

We fear *the news is (will turn out to be) only too true.*

I am afraid *I was cross.*

69a VERBS AND EXPRESSIONS IMPLYING AN ACT OF THE WILL.

With these the *that*-clause may assume one of three forms :—

1. The Subjunctive may be used, but it is now restricted to formal and poetical language except to express an unfulfilled wish (which requires the *Past Subjunctive* § 42, 2) :

We urge that *he be allowed a free hand.*

It is requested *that this part of the ticket be retained during the evening.*

The Lord Chancellor put the motion *that the House go into Committee on the Education Bill.*

Christian love requires *that we overlook our neighbour's wrongs to us.*

I wish *he were here.*

Would God *my woes were at an end.*—(Poem ante 1600).

2. A Subjunctive-equivalent with *shall* (*should*) is more usual :

It is proposed } *that Parliament shall allow*  
 There is a proposal } *a company to be formed.*

He commanded }  
 We gave orders } *that no one should move.*  
 Orders were given }

3. In ordinary speech the simple Indicative is most common with expressions meaning 'take care', and some others :

Mind *he does not see you.*

He took care *that his work was correct.*

The Subjunctive *was* formerly the normal construction :

Look (=see to it) *ye be true.*—SHAKSPERE.

The State must look *their proceedings be just*, and the Church must look *their devotions and actions be pious.*—ARCHBISHOP LAUD.



## EQUIVALENT.

69b With many verbs of this class the Accusative and Infinitive is a common construction (cf. § 60, 1):

I must ask *you to go away*.

They *bade me get down*.

I had in vain entreated *them not to meddle with the egg*.

*surprising*  
*pleasant*

### 70a B. Dependent Questions and Dependent Exclamations, §§ 66 B.

The **introducing words** are: *who* (*whom, whose*), *what, which, where, whither, whence, when, how, whether, if* (= whether).

CAUTION.—It is necessary to distinguish carefully between Dependent Questions and Relative Clauses introduced by *what*; e.g. 'Ask him *what he has done*': 'The missionary described exactly *what he saw*'. In the latter instance the *what* may be replaced by 'that which', in the former it cannot: that is the test.

It is sometimes difficult, however, to tell whether a particular clause is a Dependent Question or a Relative Clause; e.g. 'I told him *what I had told you*.' Does this mean 'I answered his question as to what I told you', or 'The same that I told you, I told him'? Observe that the meaning of the sentence depends upon its exact intonation. N.B.—In Latin the choice of pronoun and mood would determine the character of the clause: *Dixi ei quid tibi dixissem* (Dep. Question); *Dixi ei quod tibi dixeram* (Rel. Clause: here we might also have *id quod* 'that which').

70b The Dependent Question or Exclamation has the same mood as the corresponding Independent Question or Exclamation, but its tense is commonly adjusted to the time of the verb in the Principal Clause:

I now tell you *why it is so*.

Corresponding Independent Question: *Why is it so?*

In Past Time: I then told you *why it was so*.

## EXAMPLES.

Natural selection decides *who shall live*.

You have not made it clear *whether I am to go or not*.

They asked me *why I sat so still*.

The warriors tried *who was strongest to draw the bow*.

We were deliberating *whether we should cross*.

Corresponding Independent Question : *Shall we cross ?* Therefore *should* is Indicative = 'were to'.

They could not agree as to *whom they should elect*. [N.B. 'as to' may be omitted. It is not at all necessary, and is inserted in such cases probably in imitation of 'They could not agree as to that.']

70c The Subjunctive is not uncommon in poetry and higher prose, with *whether* or *if* and the present tense :

She'll not tell me *if she love me*.—TENNYSON.

70d When the Dependent Question is Deliberative, *i.e.* expresses what *is to be* done, and its Subject may be unambiguously inferred from the Principal Clause, the Infinitive with *to* is a common construction :

Tell me *what to do*. [=*what I am to do*.]  
I do not know *where to go*. [=*where I am to go*.]

It depends also upon the nature of the principal verb whether this equivalent may be used ; e.g. we can say 'They knew where to go', but not 'They asked where to go'.

REPORTED SPEECH.

71a Two methods may be employed in reporting :—

1. The reporter may **quote** words or views in their original **independent** form ; this is called **Direct Speech** or **Oratio Recta** :

'We do not think of going,' they said, 'till the winter sets in.'

2. The reporter may use the form of a clause, or clauses, **dependent** on a verb of *saying*, *thinking*, *writing*, etc., called the **leading verb** ; this is called **Indirect Speech** or **Oratio Obliqua** :

They say that they do not think of going till the winter sets in.

They said that they did not think of going till the winter set in.

In English the indirect form of reporting is very familiar to us in newspaper reports of parliamentary and other speeches.

DIRECT SPEECH.

"To adopt the young man's suggestion *will*," he said, "make no real difference except in detail. Two troops *may* as well be sent out as one. The Phelatahs *have* always been false ; and *I*

INDIRECT SPEECH.

"To adopt the young man's suggestion *would*," he said, "make no real difference except in detail. Two troops *might* as well be sent out as one. The Phelatahs *had* always been false ; and *he*

*have* found that the nettle *did* not sting yesterday, or to-day, for the first time; as far as *my* poor experience *goes* back, it *has* always been a stinging plant; and, as far as *my* poor discernment *foresees*, it always *will* be. Remember the proverb 'that if judgment *belongs* to the old, quickness of perception *belongs* to the young'; or, to speak in the language of the people, that the young foal of the ass *may* have a better sight than the father of lions. *Have we* not noticed that even the prejudices of the vulgar *are* often based upon something substantial, which chiefs of high lineage *may* not have condescended to observe? *Does* not the weasel in its own circuit see more clearly than the bison, which *relies* upon its force, and not upon its sharpness of vision?

In a word, *I advise you* not to discard a prudent suggestion from whatever source it *may* come, and *my* vote *will* be heartily given in favour of *this* young man who *has* just withdrawn from *your* presence, and to whom *I should* be more inclined to listen from the fact that he *must* have imbibed some of the wisdom of his uncle, the great chief of the East."

*had* found that the nettle *did* not sting yesterday, or to-day, for the first time; as far as *his* poor experience *went* back, it *had* always been a stinging plant; and as far as *his* poor discernment *foresaw*, it always *would* be. *Let them remember* (or *They should remember*) the proverb, 'That if judgment *belonged* (or *belongs*) to the old, quickness of perception *belonged* (or *belongs*) to the young'; or to speak in the language of the people, that the young foal of the ass *might* (or *may*) have a better sight than the father of lions. *Had they* not noticed that even the prejudices of the vulgar *were* often based upon something substantial, which chiefs of high lineage *might* not have condescended to observe? *Did* (or *does*) not the weasel in its own small circuit see more clearly than the bison, which *relied* (or *relies*) upon its force, and not upon its sharpness of vision?

In a word, *he advised them* not to discard a prudent suggestion from whatever source it *might* come, and *his* vote *would* be heartily given in favour of *that* young man who *had* just withdrawn from *their* presence, and to whom *he should* (or *would*) be more inclined to listen from the fact that he *must* have imbibed some of the wisdom of his uncle, the great chief of the East."

**71b** The way to convert Oratio Recta into Oratio Obliqua is shown in the following tables.

*Oratio Recta.*

*Oratio Obliqua.*

**1. Tense.**

Present.

Past.

Perfect.

Pluperfect.

Future.

Future Perfect.

Secondary Future.

Secondary Fut. Perf.

Obs.—If the reporter desires to make a statement of the speaker's his own, he will retain the Tenses of the *O.R.*

2. **Pronouns** and **Possessive Adjectives** are all thrown into the 3rd Person; e.g. *I, me, my*, become respectively *he, him, his*, and *you, your, yours*, become *he, him, she, her, or they, them his or their, his or theirs*.

NOTE.—The poverty of English pronouns (as compared with Latin, for example) often requires the insertion of explanations in brackets to make it clear who is referred to. See the example in 71 c (4).

**3. Adverbs** and **this**.

here

becomes

there

now

becomes

then

this, these

become

that, those.

**71c** *The above rules apply when the leading verb is 3rd person and in the past tense.* This is the form of *O.O.* with which we are best acquainted, but it is obvious that various other forms are possible. Let us consider the following example:

(1) Cræsus, king of the Lydians, said to Solon, the Athenian: My Athenian guest, *your* great fame *has* reached even to *us*, as well of *your* wisdom as of *your* travels, how that as a philosopher *you have* travelled through various countries for the purpose of observation. *I am* therefore desirous of asking *you* a question. *Tell me*, who *is* the most happy man *you have* seen.

If Cræsus reported this speech, he would say:

(2) *I* said to Solon **that** *his* great fame *had* reached even to *us*, as well of *his* wisdom as of *his* travels, how that as a philosopher *he had* travelled through various countries for the purpose of observation. *I was* therefore desirous of asking *him* a question. *I asked him to tell me* (or *Would he tell me?*) who *was* the most happy man *he had* seen.

[‘*Would he tell me?*’ represents a possible ‘*Will you tell me?*’ of the Oratio Recta.]

If Solon reported the speech, he would say :

(3) Cræsus told me that *my* great fame *had* reached even to *them*, as well as of *my* wisdom as of *my* travels, how that as a philosopher *I had* travelled through various countries for the purpose of observation. *He was* therefore desirous of asking *me* a question. *He asked me to tell him* (or *Would I tell him?*) who *was* the most happy man *I had* seen.

If a third person reported, he would say :

(4) Cræsus, king of the Lydians, said to Solon, the Athenian, that *his* (Solon's) great fame *had* reached even to *them* (the Lydians), as well of *his* wisdom as of *his* travels, how that as a philosopher *he had* travelled through various countries for the purpose of observation. That *he* (Cræsus) *was* therefore desirous of asking *him* (Solon) a question. *Would he tell him*, who *was* the most happy man *he had* seen?

## PART II.—MEANINGS OF FORMS.

## MEANINGS OF THE CASES.

72 1. The word **Case** means properly a form or modification of a declinable word used to express a certain meaning or to denote a certain relation to other words. In this strict sense, two Cases only can be distinguished in modern English: the one is marked by no distinctive ending, and is employed to express meanings which belong to the Nominative, Vocative, Accusative, and Dative in O.E. and other inflected languages; the other is the Genitive Case, which is marked by the ending *s* (man's, men's; but in all plurals formed with *s* it is denoted by an apostrophe, *ladies'*). The Personal Pronouns are an exception to this general statement, but even there a distinction in form between Accusative and Dative no longer exists.

Although but few inflexional traces of the old Case-System have survived to the present day, a linguistic *feeling* for Case distinctions where no difference of form exists is still clearly evident. A notable example of this is seen in those co-ordinate relative clauses in which the relative pronoun (in the same form) must be repeated when it performs different functions in the two clauses; e.g. 'A question *which* (Subject) has been for ages under discussion, and *which* (Object) many philosophers have attempted to solve.'

Such a regard for accuracy, however, is a mark of the literary language only; in the spoken, and especially uneducated, language, the tendency is to get rid of Case distinctions and refinements; for example, *me* and *us* are preferred, where possible, to *I* and *we*, and the declension *who, whom, whose*, is to a great extent discarded.

O.E. had five cases,\* Nominative, Accusative, Genitive, Dative, and Instrumental, and several declensions, very similar to those of German. How comes it then that of these numerous forms two only survive?

2. The large majority of O.E. nouns fall under one of two types of declension: one ('Strong'), of which the characteristic endings were *-es* in the Genitive, and *-e* in the Dative singular, and (except in neuters) *-as* in the Nominative and Accusative plural; the other ('Weak'), of which the characteristic endings were *-an* except in the Genitive and Dative Plural (all Dative Plurals ending in *-um*). Both of these types continued in modified and simplified form well into the M.E. period, but it was the 'Strong' which was destined to become the prevalent one,

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\*The Vocative has never had a form distinct from the Nominative.

and has given our modern noun-declension. Of the second type, there are a few survivals in nouns which take a plural in *-en*, as *oxen* (= O.E. *oxan*), *brethren*, and dialect forms like *housen* (= houses), and *shoon* (= shoes).

The O.E. 'strong' declension and its modern representative are here placed side by side for comparison :

	Sing.	Plur.		Sing.	Plur.	
<i>Nom.</i> }	smith	smithas		<i>Nom.</i> }		
<i>Acc.</i> }				<i>Acc.</i> }	smith	smiths
<i>Gen.</i>	smithes	smitha		<i>Dat.</i> }		
<i>Dat.</i>	smithe	smithum		<i>Gen.</i>	smith's	smiths'.

Owing to the disturbing influences, firstly, of the Danish invasions and settlements (covering a period of nearly three centuries), and secondly, of the Norman invasion and consequent influx of aliens into England (from 1066 onwards), great changes took place in the grammatical forms of the language. In all of these we see at work the efforts of the foreigner, Dane or Norman, to simplify for his own convenience the forms of a language unfamiliar to his ear and tongue, and of the native to meet the foreigner half-way, and to try to adapt his own language to new needs by sacrificing its wealth of form, often in exchange for a corresponding gain in vocabulary.

3. Thus, case and verbal endings came to be modified and simplified, in many cases 'levelling' several different inflexions under a common form; which led ultimately, in some instances, to the loss of the inflexion altogether. (We see the same process at work now in German, where the *e* of the Dative singular is frequently dropped, and will no doubt end by disappearing entirely; e.g. 'vom Haus(e and Hof(e.')

All this change was helped on by confusion of forms belonging to different types in the same class of words, whether in declensions or conjugations.

The changes which concern us here are as follows: the vowels *a*, *o*, and *u*, became 'levelled' under the form *e*; thus *-as*, *-an* became *-es*, *-en*; *-en* was further reduced in some forms by the loss of the *n*; in very many instances the remaining *e* disappeared also. The Genitive sing. and Nominative plur. *-es* finally ceased to be a separate syllable, and sank to 's, s.

If we apply these facts to the declension of O.E. *smith*, it is evident how in the singular two case-forms only survived, while in the plural Nominative and Accusative became in M.E. *smithes*, whence *smiths*, Genitive *smithe*, later *smithen* by confusion with

the *-an* declension, Dative *smiþen*. A further development took place as a result of the ousting of the ending *-en* by the *-es* of the other cases. (The apostrophe to distinguish the Genitive in writing was a late introduction).

4. No account has been taken here of the Instrumental Case of O.E., because it became very early merged in the Dative, with which it coincided in form, except in a few cases. A survival of this Case is found in '*the* more *the* merrier', where *the* represents O.E. *thȳ*, *thē*, the Instrumental of the demonstrative *that* = the, that.

5. Now, when it is thus shown how three of the singular case-forms have been reduced to one, we must expect to find it difficult, in instances where the Case is clearly not the Nominative, to say what it really is. For example, in treating the Object we have to fall back upon the analogy of O.E. and other inflected languages. We say that the Single Object is in the Accusative, because that is the general Case for Objects in such languages; and where a verb has two Objects we may as a rule regard the 'Direct' Object as an Accusative, and the 'Indirect' as a Dative. We have, therefore, to consider mainly the *relation* expressed by a noun or noun-equivalent rather than its *form*, that is, we have to consider whether it is Subject, Object, and so forth.

This question, moreover, is closely connected with that of the order of words in a sentence. If we wish to say 'The cat killed the bird,' we may express the fact by this order of words and this only. We may not say 'The cat the bird killed,' nor use any other of the four orders in which the elements of this sentence can be arranged; in fact, 'The bird killed the cat' means the reverse of what is intended, and 'The bird the cat killed' is the common way of saying 'The bird that the cat killed.' In an inflected language like Latin, however, we may arrange the three words of '*Felis avem interfecit*' in any order we please, because the form of *felis* and *avem* shows that the first is the Subject and the second the Object of *interfecit*. But even in the most highly inflected languages the order of words plays a considerable part; where inflexions are extremely few, word-order evidently becomes all important. It is in consequence of the loss of inflexion in English that the normal order of a sentence containing a Predicate of the 2nd or 3rd form must necessarily be

Subject + Verb + Predicate Noun (Adjective) *or* Object.



6. To sum up:—

1. We have two Case-forms in modern English, the one without any distinctive ending, and representing historically three Cases; the other having the inflexion *s*, and representing the Genitive.

2. To speak of a Noun as being in the Nominative, Accusative, or Dative Case, is equivalent to saying that the noun would have been in that case in the corresponding O.E. Construction, or that the meaning expressed is such as we are accustomed to associate with that Case in inflected languages.

7. The loss of Case-inflexion had three important and far-reaching effects on the structure of the language.

(i) It changed the character of certain constructions. For instance, the range of the Nominative was greatly increased by the desire to bring into prominence the *logical* subject by placing it at the head of the Sentence in the Nominative Case instead of in a less conspicuous position in the Accusative or Dative Case. See § 75.

(ii) It regulated and systematized word-order.

It has just been shown how the loss of an accusative inflexion made the order Subject + Verb + Object an absolute-necessity.

(iii) It greatly increased the scope and importance of the preposition, just as the loss of verb-inflexions enlarged the scope of the auxiliary verb.

Examples of the substitution of Prepositions for the old Case-endings will be found in §§ 78-110. See also §§ 27, 28.

### The Nominative.

**73** 1. The Nominative is the Case of the Subject of a Finite Verb (§ 16), of a Predicate Noun in a Predicate of the Second Form (§§ 2, 24), and of the Subject of an Absolute Clause (§ 61).

**74** 2. The Vocative (e.g. *Speak up, sir, please! O wretched countrymen!*) is often called the Nominative of Address.

**75** It has been mentioned in § 72.7 that, in consequence of the decay of inflexions, a Nominative construction has frequently supplanted an Oblique-case construction. Particular examples of these will now be treated; the instances here are concerned with the bringing into prominence of the thought-subject or logical subject by the substitution of the Nominative for the Dative

1. The most conspicuous instance of this is found in the change of impersonal constructions into personal ones. In O.E. verbs taking a Dative had to form the passive in the same way as similar words do in Latin. Thus like *regi respondetur* (the king is answered, lit. 'it is answered to the king'), we have in O.E. (*Hit*) *is answered tham cyninge* (Dative). The latter became in M.E. (*it*) *is answered the kinge* (later *king*); the loss of the distinctive Dative inflexion *e* easily paved the way for *the king is answered*. The original Dative being 'levelled' with the Nominative was apprehended as a Nominative, and, the construction was further extended to pronouns, so that we get *I am* or *he is answered*. (Any such form as this would have been as impossible in O.E. as *respondeor* in Latin, or *je suis répondu* in French.) Precisely the same thing has happened with the class of originally impersonal verbs containing *like, long, shame, rue*. In O.E. we have (*hit*) *licath tham cyninge that tō dōnne* = 'it is pleasing to the king to do that'; in M.E. this became (*it*) *liketh or likes the kinge* (or *king*); whence *the king likes*, and consequently *I like*. In the case of these verbs we have to notice a striking development of meaning as well as a change of construction; thus *like*, which originally meant 'to be pleasing,' now means 'to be pleased.' Cf. *if you please* § 192.

2. *I am woe for't. Woe are we*. These expressions are found in Shakspeare and came down from M.E. times. Here we have not only a shifting of case but also of the part of speech; *woe* has become an adjective = sorrowful. This is the result of a process exactly similar to that described above; e.g., O.E. *Tham cyninge is wā* (= To the king is woe), would give M.E. *The kinge is wo*, subsequently *the king is woe*, whence *he is woe, we are woe*, etc. The original construction is perpetuated in archaic forms like *Woe is me!* (O.E. *wā is mē*) and *Woe worth the day!* where *worth* = O.E. *worþthe*, 'let (it) become,' 'be,' and *the day* is to be parsed as a Dative. Chaucer blends the old and the new construction in '*me* is as wo For him as ever *I* was for any man.'

### The Accusative.

76 1. Its chief uses are:—

- i. As the Object of Transitive Verbs (§§ 3, 26).
- ii. As an Adverbial Adjunct expressing relations of time, space, measure, and the like (§§ 78, 80).
- iii. As the Case depending on Prepositions (§ 104).

2. The Accusative therefore is the great Adverbial Case. By it almost all Adverbial relations are expressed in modern English.

As to the adverbial nature of the object see § 26 Obs.

77 ORIGIN OF THE ACCUSATIVE AS THE CASE OF THE OBJECT, ETC. —In Old English, as in Latin, Greek, and German, the majority of verbs took an Object in the Accusative; but there were certain verbs which took it in the Genitive and certain others in the Dative, the same three cases being also used to express other Adverbial relations, as those of Time, Place, and Manner (see § 78). A few instances of the Genitive and Dative as Direct Object remained in early Middle English; but two influences were at work which tended to make these disappear rapidly: (i) the large majority of verbs took the Accusative as

Object, and thus there was a tendency for the Accusative to become the universal Object-case (just as *-es, -s*, weakened from OE. *-as*, has become, except in a few isolated words, the universal plural ending); (ii) the Case endings were rapidly becoming 'levelled'; so that (for example) the Dative in M.E. soon became undistinguishable from the Accusative.

The history of the Accusative as an Adverbial adjunct is quite similar. Relations of time, space, measure, or manner were expressed in O.E. by the Accusative, Genitive, Dative, or (occasionally) Instrumental; but by far the greater majority were in the Accusative. By the process of 'levelling' the distinction between Accusative and Dative became obliterated; moreover, the Accusative largely extended its scope by simply supplanting the other cases. The Genitive remained in a few idioms which are mentioned in § 86.

The use of the Accusative in dependence on Prepositions presents the same kind of historical development. In O.E. all the Oblique Cases were employed with Prepositions, some of which, as in Latin and modern German, took different Cases according to the meaning intended. Ultimately, by the 'levelling' process the Case after Prepositions became the same as the Object-case, i.e. the Accusative.

✎ In pronouns the Object-case is formally the *Dative*.

## 78 The Accusative of Time, Space, Measure, or Manner.

✎ In most cases the simple Adverbial Accusative may be replaced by an Equivalent with a Preposition, e.g. 'They stayed there some time' or 'for some time.'

### EXAMPLES.

They went *home another way*.

'Home' represents the O.E. *hām*, Accusative of *hām*, settlement, dwelling, and is thus=Latin *domum*. The O.E. equivalent of 'another way' would be in the Genitive, '*ōthres weges*.' We might render it by an Equivalent: 'By another way.'

He came *full speed*.

Equiv. *at full speed*.

Have it *your own way*.

Cf. They did it *in or after their own fashion*.

Our friend died *last night*.

Cf. *On the last night* of the Old Year.

The windows of the tower face *both ways*.

Cf. *In both directions*.

You have been mistaken *all the while*.

Cf. Stay with me *for a while*.

They watched and waited *the whole night long*.

Cf. *For a whole night*.

I have been nearly *three years* over it.

Cf. I have been at it *for three years*.

You have been *a long time*.

He smote them *hip and thigh*.

Cf. He was struck *over the head*.

Bind him *hand and foot*.

It is the same *all the world*  
over (see § 104, Obs.).

*Months* ago he told me that  
very thing.

The river is *a mile* broad just  
here.

A sermon *two hours* long.

The shot went out to sea  
*miles* beyond the targets.

I have been *many voyages*.

I am *ten years* your senior.

His home is *seven thousand*  
*miles* away.

This hat is *a great deal* too  
big for me.

Cf. The country will be im-  
poverished *for some time*  
to come.

Cf. The river is higher *by two*  
*feet*.

Equiv. *for miles*.

Equiv. I am your senior *by*  
*ten years*.

Cf. That is paying too much  
*by a good deal*.

- 79 The Accusative plays the part of Subject in what is called the **Accusative and Infinitive** Construction. For full treatment and examples see § 174.

*Whom do men say that I am?*—This sentence (which occurs in the Authorised Version of the Bible), contains an error in Case which is not uncommon. The mistake lies in saying *whom* and not *who*. The corresponding affirmative sentence is 'Men say *who* I am', and the nature of the construction is not altered by turning this into an interrogative. But confusion has no doubt been caused by a reminiscence of '*Whom do men declare me to be?*' which contains an Accusative and Infinitive in which *whom* is a predicate pronoun.

- 80 A use of quite modern development is what may be called the **Accusative of Description**, an adjective-equivalent expressing such properties of objects as size, colour, age, price, or the professions of persons. In most cases the Accusative may be replaced by *of* with the noun.

#### EXAMPLES.

The plank is not *the right width* (= of the right width).

The towers were exactly *the same height*.

The door was *a dark brown*.

She had hands *the colour* of a pickling cabbage.

Behind the altar painted on the plaster of the wall **was**  
the rood or crucifix *the size of life*.

*What price* is that article?

*What* are potatoes to-day?

*What age* is she? She might be *any age* (or *anything*)  
between twenty and thirty.

*What trade* is he?

*What part of speech* are these words?

- 81 The Accusative is found in certain exclamatory phrases :

Ah *me!* Dear *me!* Unhappy *me!* (Cf. L. *me miserum.*)

- 82 What is sometimes called the *Remaining Accusative* is found in the passive form of constructions involving two objects, where one of the objects becomes the subject of the passive form, but the other remains as it was.

*Active.*

They taught me Latin.

They dismissed him the service.

They allowed him a free hand.

*Passive.*

I was taught *Latin*.

He was dismissed *the service*.

He was allowed *a free hand*.

- 83 The Accusative is often used to express relations of the vaguest kind. Examples of this are :

(1) Its use with intransitive verbs followed by a Pred. Adj. or Adverb : e.g. 'to cry *oneself* hoarse,' 'to cry *one's eyes* out,' 'to dance *oneself* tired,' 'to laugh *a man* down,' 'A lover's eyes will gaze *an eagle* blind' (Shakspeare); 'With wire and catgut he concludes the day, | Quavering and semiquavering *care* away' (Cowper). These are no doubt modelled on constructions with transitive verbs like 'to wash one's forehead cool,' 'to strike a man dead,' and so forth. Cf. the use of *it* as a vague object (see § 232).

(2) 'They laughed *him* to scorn.' The *him* is no doubt Dative in origin, but it is now apprehended as an Accusative. Compare the similar case of 'he struck *me* a blow', where *me* seems to be partly Dative and partly Accusative.

(3) 'To look *things* in the face'; 'to look *a man* through and through'; 'to look *a gift horse* in the mouth'; 'to sleep *the clock* round'. Here the italicized words, if not really Objects, are felt to be Accusatives. For a discussion of some of these cases, see § 104.

### The Genitive.

- 84 The fundamental meaning of the Genitive is *of*. It is primarily an *Adjectival Case*, i.e., does the work of an Adjective; but, as in Latin and Greek, the Genitive in O.E. acquired adverbial uses by taking to itself the meanings of the lost Ablative and Locative Cases. These Adverbial meanings have now disappeared as living uses, the inflexion having been superseded largely by the preposition 'of', while many of its uses have been usurped by the Accusative. In O.E. the case was used in dependence on certain verbs, to denote the object or source of feeling or emotion, what is remembered or forgotten, what is lacking or supplied, its range being in this respect very much the same as that of the Latin and

Greek Genitive. It was also used to denote extent of time (*wintres and sumeres*, during winter and summer), point of time (*feorthan gēares*, in the fourth year), space (*fifþene elna deop*, fifteen ells deep), and in similar expressions (e.g. *ōþres wegēs hāmweard*, another way home).

85 We have seen in § 77 how the Genitive as a direct object became extinct in early M.E., and how its place was supplied.

The history of the expressions of time, place and extent, is exactly similar; they, in course of time, either assumed the 'common case' form, and from their adverbial character may be regarded as being in the Accusative in Mod. Engl., or else the inflexional meaning was expressed by means of a preposition. In many instances it is possible to use either construction; e.g. we may say 'the fourth year after' or 'in the fourth year after'. Again, often where M.E. used the prepositional form, Mod. Engl. has the bare Accusative, e.g. 'Of fourteene foote it was long' (14th century); here Mod. Engl. would omit the 'of', thus obscuring the fact that the original case was the Genitive.

86 The Adverbial Genitive has survived in a few fossilized words and phrases: *must needs*, *nowadays*, *go your ways* (cf. German *gehe deines wegēs*).

87 The only *living* uses of the Genitive, therefore, are adjectival ones, with the meaning 'belonging to', 'connected with'.

Of these the most common is the **Possessive Genitive**. As in other languages it may be used:

(i) attributively: Which is the *doctor's* house?

*Whose* handwriting is this?

(ii) predicatively, i.e. as equivalent to a predicate adjective (§ 2):

This house is the *doctor's*; those offices are our *lawyer's*.

*Whose* is this handwriting?

Note the heaping up of Possessives: e.g. 'the murderer's horse's tail', 'my father's brother's daughter.'

88 The Possessive Genitive may be used with an ellipsis of any noun, when it is clear from the context what noun is to be supplied; as

Man's life is cheap as *beast's* [life].

I have read all Scott's novels, but only a few of *Thackeray's* [novels].

But it is especially common with an ellipsis of 'house', 'church', or the name of some other building; e.g. *St. Paul's* = St Paul's church or cathedral; I've just come from *my father's*, i.e. my father's house; *the barber's*, *the butcher's* (understand 'shop'); at *the printer's*.

The ellipsis is so natural that it is hardly felt, so that such Genitives may occur like any noun in any position in the sentence, as Subject, Object, etc. : 'I passed *a bookseller's* on my way home.' 'I will go to *the doctor's*.' '*The doctor's* is on the other side of the street.'

- 89 The Genitive inflexion may be added not only to a single word, but to a phrase regarded as a unit. So we may say: '*the Emperor of Germany's* mother', '*somebody else's* umbrella', '*a quarter of an hour's* ride.' This is sometimes called the 'group Genitive'. It must not be extended beyond reasonable limits; such ludicrous phrasings as the following will be avoided: '*the father of the child's* remonstrances' (instead of 'the remonstrances of the child's father'), 'that's *the man I saw yesterday's* son', 'that's *the passenger that missed the train's* luggage.'

There are some curious variations of the ordinary form of this idiom in the older language, such as 'I do dine to-day at the father's of a certain pupil of mine' (SHAKSPERE). In M.E. we meet with phrases like 'the Emperoures moder William' (= the Emperor William's mother).

- 90 The Genitive inflexion is often represented in mod. E. by the preposition 'of'. This occurs even with the ordinary Possessive meaning; thus (in prose) we prefer to say 'the base *of the pillar*', rather than '*the pillar's* base'; 'the top *of the mountain*', 'the course *of the month*', not '*the mountain's* top', '*the month's* course'. In fact the tendency is to use the Genitive with names of persons only. No rules can be given. English linguistic feeling alone can be the guide. We say, e.g. 'the sun's rays' or 'the rays of the sun,' 'the planet's orbit' or 'the orbit of the planet,' 'the flight of ages', but not in prose 'the ages' flight'.

The construction with 'of' is preferred as being less ambiguous when the possessor is in the plural. In speech 'the *lover's* meeting' is not distinguishable from 'the *lovers'* meeting', hence it is usual to say 'the meeting *of the lovers*'.

- 91 English possesses a peculiar idiom in the use of 'of' with a Genitive Case immediately following, as in 'This is an old book *of my mother's*'. The construction is most likely to be regarded as elliptical (a Plural being understood), e.g. 'This is a book *of my sister's books*', in which 'of my sister's books' represents the *Partitive Genitive* of fully inflected languages, so called because it denotes a divided whole, i.e. corresponds to the denominator of a fraction. In modern English the Genitive inflexion cannot be used in this partitive sense; we must use 'of': e.g. 'many *of the*

*soldiers*’; ‘*of all men the most accomplished*’; ‘*he is of the order of Knights Templars*’.

O.E., and to some extent M.E., had a true Partitive Genitive, used not only with pronouns like *one, some, many*, but also with verbs meaning *to take, receive, give*, and others. But even in O.E. we find *of* (with the Dative) as an alternative construction; this is in fairly common use in the 1611 Bible and is found in modern poetry. Example: ‘*He drank of the wine*’ (Gen. ix. 21), where the O.E. version has ‘*he dranc of thām wine*’ (instead of ‘*he dranc thæs wīnes*’); ‘*She took of the fruit thereof*’ (ibid. iii. 6). Chaucer (about 1400 A.D.) has: ‘*Of small houndes had she, that she fedde with roasted flesh.*’

- 92 ‘*Of*’ is almost invariably now used where the original Genitive denoted what might have been the object of a Verb-Noun—the **Objective Genitive**—as in ‘*their fear of the enemy was great*’ (i.e. they feared the enemy greatly); ‘*the love of money*’; ‘*a feeling of happiness*’; ‘*the slaughter of thousands*’. The Objective meaning is also expressed by means of other prepositions: e.g. ‘*love for a father*’, ‘*a longing for relief*’, ‘*belief or hope in God*’.

The Objective Genitive proper is poetical, e.g. ‘*for sin’s rebuke and my Creator’s praise*’ (Shakspeare).

- 93 Contrast with these ‘*the enemy’s fear*’ = ‘*the fear felt by the enemy*’, ‘*a father’s love*’ = ‘*the love felt by a father*’. The latter is called by distinction the **Subjective Genitive**, as denoting the source or origin of something.

- 94 The simple **Genitive of Description** of Old English corresponding to that of Latin, as in *vir magnæ probitatis* (= ‘*a man of great honesty*’, ‘*a very honest man*’), did not survive, but is represented in modern English by the Genitive-equivalent with ‘*of*’: ‘*a writer of splendid wit*’; ‘*men of valour*’. This is also used to express the material of which a thing consists or is composed, and also the individuals forming a collective unity: ‘*a ring of gold*’; ‘*a frame of adamant, a soul of fire*’ (Johnson); ‘*a field of buttercups*’, ‘*the order of Knights Templars*’, ‘*a row of cabbages*’; ‘*this man of clay*’ (Milton). It is also used predicatively, e.g. ‘*The flowers are of a beautiful colour*’ | ‘*Can I be of any service to you?*’

The Genitive, however, with a defining word (often a numeral adjective) may be used to describe, especially in expressions of time and space: ‘*a moment’s hesitation*’; ‘*a summer’s day*’; ‘*three weeks’ wages*’; ‘*six months’ work*’; ‘*within a stone’s throw*’; ‘*the Thirty Years’ war*’; ‘*a year’s salary*’; (compare ‘*the salary*



for a year'); 'a Sabbath day's journey'. But the Genitive-equivalent is a frequent alternative: 'the work of a moment'. In certain cases the inflexional Genitive cannot be used; thus, we must say 'a boy of ten years' (not 'a ten years' boy) 'a man of thirty'.

In many cases where Latin uses a Genitive of Description he should generally use an adjective: *puer oculorum coeruleorum* (lit. 'a boy of blue eyes'), 'a blue-eyed boy.'

- 95 The use of the **Appositive Genitive**, that is, a Genitive playing the part of a noun in apposition, which was formerly somewhat frequent, is now confined to poetry: 'the government of Britain's isle' (Shakspeare); 'Tempe's classic vale'. The equivalent with 'of' is now usual: 'the city of Rome' (= Latin *urbs Roma*); 'the State of Florida'; 'the continent of Africa'. Expressions like 'the jewel of life', 'the flower of chastity', 'this frail sepulchre of our flesh' (Shakspeare) are of the same class.

But it should be observed that expressions of this kind are limited in range. Though the equivalent with 'of' may be used with names of *places*, it cannot be used with those of *rivers*; we cannot now say 'the river of Thames', but must use a noun in apposition, as in Latin. Such differences in language are a matter of usage only and rest on no distinction of meaning. Compare the instances in the following table.

ENGLISH.	LATIN.
The Emperor Augustus (Appos.).	Princeps Augustus (Appos.).
The word pleasure (Appos.).	Vox voluptatis (Genitive).
The city of Rome (Gen. Equiv.)	Urbs Roma (Appos.).
The river Nile (Appos.).	Flumen Nilus (Appos.).

- 96 Akin to the above expressions with 'of' are such as the following, current in colloquial language: 'a brute of a man', 'a monster of a dog', 'a treasure of a book', and the obsolete 'He was a ryght good knyght of a yonge man' (Malory *Morte Darthur* bk. 3, ch. 15).

### The Dative.

- 97 The Dative Case can no longer be recognised by its form as a distinct case; in nouns, as we have seen in § 72. 3, the Nominative, Accusative, and Dative have now a common form; in pronouns,

the Accusative has the same form as the Dative, to which it has been assimilated. It is convenient, however, to keep the term for the purpose of preserving syntactical distinctions—as, for example, between the Direct and Indirect Objects—and for comparison with other languages in which it has a distinct case-form.

- 98 The Dative Case has two fundamental meanings which are conveyed by the prepositions **to** and **for**, which in certain cases are used as a substitute for the Dative. In O.E. the Dative had much the same scope of usage as in Latin. Some of the processes by which its once extensive use has been restricted have been illustrated in § 75.

Obs.—It must not be supposed that, where either the Dative or its equivalent with *to* or *for* is permissible, in the first case the preposition is omitted. The two constructions are historically quite distinct.

- 99 The following are the surviving uses:—

I. Meaning 'to'.

A. As the Indirect Object (§ 31) with certain verbs (**Dative of the Indirect Object**):

Nature played *us* an unfair trick.

I saw Mark Antony offer *him* a crown.—SHAKSPERE.

[A few lines below: Then he offered it *to him* again.]

Farmers often give *cows* malt.

He left *his daughter* a large fortune.

- 100 B. In dependence on certain adjectives and adverbs: *like*, *unlike*, *near*, (*nearest*, *next*), *opposite*:

Like *me*, you do not give enough time to reading.

How unlike *him*!

Tell me *whom* (*what*, *which* of your relatives) he is like.

We lived quite near them, next *the parsonage*.

The man was in the chair opposite *you*.

Notice that the different senses of *near* take different constructions, e.g. 'The Prince of Wales stood *near* (or *near to*) *the throne*' and 'The German Emperor is *near to the throne* of Great Britain' (i.e. in respect of succession). In the second sentence 'near the throne' would be undesirable, as being ambiguous and suggesting the wrong meaning.

## 101 II. Meaning 'for'.

A. The **Dative of Interest**.

(1) With transitive verbs. (Colloquial).

Will you write *me* a statement to that effect?He played *us* a sonata of Beethoven.Make *him* up a parcel of books.He wants you to cash *him* that cheque.'Kill *me* these scoundrels,' shouted Philip, 'as the Genoese fell back'.They found no fault with my Worcestershire perry, which I sold them for champagne. They drank *me* two bottles.—FIELDING.Villain, I say, knock *me* at this gate,And rap *me* well, or I'll knock your knave's pate.—SHAKS.

(2) With intransitive verbs :

Your old umbrella stood *me* in good stead.It will last *the owner* a lifetime.

In ancient authors, and occasionally (by imitation) in modern authors, we find *me* or the indefinite *you* inserted in a narrative as a mere expletive of little meaning. This is usually called the **Ethical Dative**.

He plucked *me* ope his doublet and offered them his throat to cut.—SHAKS. *Julius Cæsar*, 1. 2. 270.There was a little quiver fellow, and a' [=he] would manage *you* his piece thus; and a' would about and about, and come *you* in and come *you* in.—*2nd Pt. Henry IV.*, 3. 2. 301-3.A terrible demon of a woman . . . claps *you* an iron cap on her head, and takes the field when need is.—CARLYLE.102 B. The **Reflexive Dative** (only with pronouns and now archaic), which is used with certain *intransitive* verbs :She went and sat *her* down over against him.—*Bible*.Stand *thee* close then. I followed *me* close.—SHAKSPERE.Then lies *him* down the lubber fiend.—MILTON.

**Caution.**—This is to be carefully distinguished from the Reflexive Pronoun in the Accusative with *transitive* verbs (e.g. I will *lay me* down).

## 103 THE POSITION OF A DATIVE AND AN ACCUSATIVE GOVERNED BY THE SAME VERB.

I. The Dative, whether a noun or pronoun, precedes the Accusative when the latter is a noun :

She has bought *the boy* a book.

The duke brought *the queen* a letter.  
 This saved *my father* much trouble.  
 I promised *him* every indulgence.  
 Her father left *her* a very pretty fortune.  
 Stay and keep *me* company.  
 Paint *me* a picture.

2. When both Dative and Accusative are pronouns, their position is determined by their phonetic value, the lighter of the two usually coming first :

Tell *him* this.  
 Do not send *me* those.  
 We will show it *you*.  
 I will fetch it *him*.

Where the pronouns are of approximately equal phonetic value, there appears to be some uncertainty as to their position. Thus, 'I cannot lend them *you* now' and 'I cannot lend *you* them now' are equally possible.

3. When the Dative is replaced by *to* or *for*, the Accusative always comes first :

He taught Euclid *to his sons*.  
 He meant no good *to us*.  
 Bring the book *to me*.  
 Will you paint a picture *for me*?

#### PREPOSITIONS.

104 1. Prepositions are used with Nouns and Noun-equivalents to form Adjective- and Adverb equivalents. The origins and formations of Prepositions are various ; many of them are composed of two simple Prepositions or Adverbs joined together, as *into*, *out of*, *within*, *without*, or are really phrases, as *beside* = by side (of), *aboard* = on board (of) ; some have the form of present participles, as *concerning*, *notwithstanding*, *touching* (for their origin see § 61c. 4) ; others were originally adjectives, as *next*, *past*, *round*, *save*. But the oldest and most common are the simple ones : *after*, *at*, *by*, *for*, *from*, *in*, *of*, *on*, *over*, *till*, *to*, *up*, *with*.

2. The place of Prepositions is usually immediately before the words to which they belong, as '*in* the house,' '*with* rapidity' ;

but it is still possible in poetry for some of them to be placed immediately after the words which they govern :

For having but thought *my heart within*,  
A treble penance must be done.—SCOTT.  
As the boat-head wound along  
*The willow hills and fields among*.—TENNYSON.

This was formerly common in poetry, chiefly with Prepositions of more than one syllable. (The same order is often found in Latin and Greek.)

While the cock . . .  
Stoutly struts *his dames before*.—MILTON.  
As he were wode [=mad] he lokyd *hym aboute*.—LYDGATE.  
That never was ther no word *hem [=them] bitwene*  
Of jelousye.—CHAUCER.

The post-position of *notwithstanding* has been dealt with in § 61 c. 4 (ii).

3. Now, this fact helps us to discover the *origin* of Prepositions. Why should it be possible nowadays, and formerly common, for Prepositions to *follow* the words to which they belong? The answer is, that Prepositions have been developed out of adverbs. It will be seen that most of the simple ones enumerated above are still used as adverbs also—all of them, indeed, except *till* and *with*; for *fro* in *to and fro* is historically identical with *from*, and *off* is merely a differentiated spelling of *of*. As adverbs, then, these words were originally connected with a verb and not with a noun; they often, however, accompanied a noun standing in an oblique case showing sufficiently clearly its relation to the verb without the addition of the adverb, which was in reality superfluous. Thus we should have something like 'He is tte town in,' 'the town' being in a case which indicated 'rest at a place,' the adverb *in* simply emphasizing the idea. But, in course of time, the adverb lost its close connexion with the verb and became linked to the noun, ultimately taking its position before it.

4. It is obvious that the same adverb could be used with different cases, to indicate different conditions of time, place, and manner; hence it is that we find in O.E. (as in Latin, Greek, and German) certain prepositions capable of taking different cases to express different meanings.

Prepositions now all govern the Accusative Case. See § 77.

OBS.—How indistinct the line of demarcation between Preposition and Adverb really is may be seen from a consideration of expressions like 'all the world *over*,' 'all the year *round*,' 'to sleep the clock *round*.' These are apprehended as consisting of an adverbial accusative followed by an adverb, but they

seem to have resulted from an inversion of the word-order and a consequent conversion of a preposition into an adverb (*e.g.*, 'all the world over' instead of 'over all the world').

We may notice in this connexion the history of the phrase 'to lay on a person' (= to belabour him). In M.E. we find 'to lay him on,' where *him* is Dative and the *on* is an Adverb; this gave rise by inversion to the form 'to lay on him,' which is the modern form of the expression (the older form lasting on till the 17th century; *e.g.*, 'He laid us on with a great quarter-staff,' Vanbrugh).

**105** By the 'levelling' of the oblique cases which took place in M.E., certain shades of meaning conveyed by the use of Prepositions with certain cases were lost, but on the other hand the rôle of the Preposition was immensely increased, as we have seen in § 72; the result being that what seems to have been originally a more or less superfluous addition to an adverbial phrase (§ 104. 3) has become a necessary connecting link between nouns and nouns, or verbs and nouns.

**106** The commonest prepositions which have taken the place of the lost or restricted case-endings are: *of*, *from* (= Genitive), *to*, *for* (= Dative), *at*, *in*, *with*, *by* (= Accusative and Instrumental). See §§ 78-103, for various examples.

We have seen in connexion with the Partitive Genitive (§ 91) how the substitution of Prepositions for case-endings began in O.E., where we sometimes find two alternative expressions in use side by side, the one in which the meaning is denoted simply by a case-ending, the other in which it is denoted by a Preposition governing its own particular case.

**107** The meanings and uses of the several prepositions must be sought in the Dictionary. They do not properly belong to Grammar, and have been treated in this book only in so far as they now represent lost cases.

**108** **By** is the Preposition now commonly used to express the agent, *e.g.*, 'Meat is sold *by* butchers,' 'He was attended *by* a nurse.' **Of** was formerly much more usual in this sense, and was so used in O.E. 'He was seen *of* Cephas, then *of* the twelve: after that, he was seen *of* above five hundred brethren at once' (*Bible*, 1611).

**With** often denotes the instrument, means, or accompanying circumstance, *e.g.*, 'He was slain *with* the sword.' 'My illness was attended *with* fever.' But **by** is very common in certain connexions, *e.g.*, 'The position was gained *by* stealth.'

**109** The omission of **of** in certain instances has produced some remarkable expressions. Thus, 'a dozen apples' is for 'a dozen *of* apples,' *dozen* being a noun (French *douzaine*) and therefore

requiring a genitive or genitive-equivalent; similarly 'half a dozen apples' is for 'the half *of* a dozen *of* apples.' The now archaic 'worthy me' is for 'worthy *of* me' ('of me' representing the true genitive of O.E. *weorthig mīn*).

Again, some phrases like (*on*) *this side* have come to be used as Prepositions and govern an Accusative, e.g., '(on) this side the channel' = '(on) this side *of* the channel.'

- 110 Prepositions may govern not only nouns and pronouns but also any noun-equivalent: *till late in the night, until now, from above, from here to there, for ever, from thence, all round there, before then*, etc.

As the result of ellipsis, we often get two prepositions coming together in this way: *from under* the table (= something like 'from a place under the table'); *from amongst* the crowd, *to within* an inch; not *till after* the examination; winning *by about* 100 yards; *from over* the way; *but for* your help; the fleet consisting *of from* seventeen to twenty sail of the line. In all these cases the ellipsis involves some noun expressing place, time, or measure; but with the phrasal preposition *instead of* we have other kinds of ellipsis: e.g. 'He put it into his pocket *instead of into the drawer*,' i.e., 'instead of putting it into the drawer.'

- 111 Certain prepositions are capable of governing noun-clauses introduced by *that*, thus forming conjunctive phrases, e.g. *in that, except that, save that, notwithstanding that* (= in respect of the fact that, except for the fact that, etc.) These have been modelled upon the much earlier (but now archaic) *after that, before that, till that, for that*; for the origin of which see § 14 Obs. 1, p. 16 and § 47 Obs., p. 54.

- 112 Prepositions are frequently detached from the words they govern and placed at the end of the clause; this occurs chiefly in interrogative and relative clauses. It is frequent in Old Norse and the modern Scandinavian languages, and probably owes its existence in English to Old Norse influence.

#### EXAMPLES.

*Whom* are you looking *for*? (instead of: *For whom* are you looking?)

I have found the book *that* I was looking *for* (= *for which* I was looking).

This was *what* I was looking *for*. (If the preposition is to take its normal position, the *what* must be analysed thus: This was *that for which* I was looking.)

I do not know *what* to look *for*.

In literary style a preposition is not a suitable word to end a sentence *with* (= *with which* to end a sentence).

But it is also possible in other cases, e.g., where the noun governed by the preposition is separated from it for the sake of emphasis, as in the following:

The binding of the books it is impossible to speak too highly *of*.

**112b** The following is an extreme instance (with Relative omitted):

The Michaels and Raphaels, you hum and buzz  
Round the works *of*.—BROWNING.

There is faulty repetition of the preposition in:

The weak estate [=condition] *in* which Queen Mary left the realm *in*.—MILTON.

**113** Prepositions are tacked on to the non-finite parts of verbs, without anything to govern and looking very much like adverbs. This occurs mainly with verbs constructed with *fixed* prepositions (§ 26b), as 'a man fit to *talk to*,' 'a thing to be *thought about*,' 'a cry more tuneable was never *holla'd to*' (SHAKS.), 'nothing worth *speaking of*.' It may, however, occur with any verb and any preposition, e.g. 'a house not fit to *live in*' (= a house in which it is not fit to live). The construction is capable of extension in other ways; so we may say 'to be made fun *of*,' 'unthought-*of*,' 'unlooked-*for*,' 'undreamt-*of*,' and occasionally one may hear things like 'liveable-*in*,' 'talkable-*to*.'

This use with an infinitive can be traced back to the earliest period of English. Thus in the Old English Chronicle we have 'Me lihtede candelas to *æten bi*' = People lighted candles to eat by, i.e. for eating by (them).

**113b** The following is an interesting and remarkable illustration of the way in which such constructions may be extended: 'Mr. St. John . . . was a lawyer of Lincoln's Inn, known to be of parts and industry, but *untaken notice of* for practice in Westminster-hall' (Clarendon *History of the Rebellion*, 1647 A.D.).

**114a** **But** is a Preposition meaning 'except,' and, like other Prepositions, governs the Nominative:

No one would have thought of it *but him*.

If, however, a sentence like this is otherwise arranged, the Nominative is very commonly put instead of the Accusative:

No one *but he* would have thought of it.



The Accusative, in fact, is felt to be inelegant. *But* thus becomes a Conjunction, and the sentence must be regarded as equivalent to 'No one would have thought of it, *but* he would have thought of it.' Compare :

The boy stood on the burning deck,  
Whence all *but he* had fled (= *but he* had *not* fled).

- 114b** **Than**, when introducing a Contracted Comparative clause (§ 59. 2), has (at least from early mod. E. times) been treated as a Preposition and been followed by the Accusative. With relative pronouns the Accusative is obligatory (*than whom*, not *than who*), and its very common use with other pronouns bears witness to the prepositional character of *than* :

How much older is he *than me*?

It is only by mentally constructing the Comparative Clause for which 'than me' is a substitute (cf. § 59. 2), that one can say 'How much older is he than I?' And this is sometimes considered rather pedantic.

#### THE VOICES.

- 115** The **Active Voice** is used intransitively very freely in English in many cases where other languages have to employ a reflexive or passive form :

Corn *sells* at a good price. (= Latin passive *venditur*, French reflexive *se vend*, German true passive *wird verkauft*.)

The weather *keeps* fine.

The chickens will *hatch* out in a fortnight.

The soldiers *are girding* for the fight. (= Latin *se accingunt*.)

These oranges *peel* very easily.

Which apples *bake* best?

OBS.—In the first four examples the int  
ing as the passive or reflexive; in the last  
'to admit of being —ed', 'to turn out

imply the same mean-  
quasi-passive sense of  
ie process of —ing.'

- 116** The forms of the **Passive Voice** have two distinct meanings

1. They may express continuous or habitual action, as :

Thousands of letters *are received* daily.

Fruit *was eaten* in large quantities.

When the sense is liable to be ambiguous, this meaning is more unmistakably expressed by the continuous forms: 'are being received,' 'was being eaten.'

2. They may express the state resulting from an action, as :  
The articles *are sold* (=are in a sold condition, have been sold).  
The letter *is written* at last.

**116b** This distinction must be borne in mind when translating from English into another language. Sentences like 'The cherries are sold' will be expressed, according to the meaning intended, in two different ways :—

1. Latin	.	.	.	<i>Cerasi veniunt.</i>
French	.	.	.	<i>Les cerises se vendent.</i>
German	.	.	.	<i>Die Kirschen werden verkauft</i>
2. Latin	.	.	.	<i>Cerasi veniverunt.</i>
French	.	.	.	<i>Les cerises sont vendues.</i>
German	.	.	.	<i>Die Kirschen sind verkauft.</i>

**117** For the passive of verbs taking two objects and of verbs constructed with fixed prepositions, see §§ 28, 32.

#### MEANINGS OF THE MOODS AND TENSES.

##### Tenses and Tense-Equivalents.

**118** 1. Of all the Tenses now in use in English, two only are Simple, *i.e.*, are expressed by means of a single word—namely, the Present and the Past (*I write, I wrote*). Around these two the whole elaborate system of Tenses has been built up. In the earliest period of Old English, all the various shades of meaning in present, past, and future time were expressed by these two forms alone. Thus the Present tense form was used to express both present and future time; modern English possesses still a survival or reminiscence of this use of Present=Future (see § 126). The Past tense form had the meanings of the Past, Past Imperfect, Present Perfect, and Pluperfect of Latin; even now English has no distinctive form to express the meaning 'used to' of the Imperfect, and the Past tense is frequently used with Pluperfect meaning, as *when they came* for *when they had come* (see § 136).

2. So long as the language remained simply a means of expressing thought in speech for everyday purposes, these two tense-forms

were adequate enough, as the various shades of time, present, past, or future, could be readily indicated by means of adverbs or adverb-equivalents. But when language began to be committed to writing, ambiguities would arise, which, with the increasing complexity of the thoughts to be expressed, made a more elaborate and accurate system of tenses necessary. Sentences which might be perfectly understood when spoken were not intelligible when written. Therefore we find in the more advanced O.E. authors a number of Compound Tenses coming into use, to express more accurately the meanings of Present Perfect, Pluperfect, and so forth, and towards the close of the O.E. period we have the Tense system developed almost to its present extent. In some writers, however, the two Simple tenses are almost the only ones actually employed.

3. The Compound Tenses are formed by means of *do* (*did*), *will* (*would*), and *shall* (*should*) with the Infinitive, *have* (*had*) with the Passive Participle, and the verb *to be* with the Active Participle; i.e. certain short verbs of common occurrence, when used in connexion with certain Verb-Nouns and Verb-Adjectives, have lost their independent meaning and have become mere signs of Tense. Thus, *he will come* meant originally 'he is willing or determined to come'; the passing of this into a mere Future-equivalent is not difficult to understand when we consider that, when one declares oneself willing or determined to do something, one has in mind a time which is future, if only by a few moments.\* Similarly *we shall come* meant 'we are bound to come'; the development of this into a simple Future-equivalent is equally intelligible. Again, the full meaning of *I have finished them* is 'I possess them in a finished state, in a state of completion.' The original order of the words would naturally be 'I have them finished.' We may still use this word-order, though it expresses something slightly different from 'I have finished them'; and the slight nature of this difference shows how easily such a form of expression became a mere Present Perfect Tense. The beginnings of such a process are to be found even in classical Latin, where we have such crystallized phrases as *habeo compertum* = 'I have (it) as a thing ascertained,' i.e., 'I have ascertained.'



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\* This use of *will* is exactly paralleled in modern Greek, where  $\theta\epsilon\lambda\omega$  (*I will*) is employed to form the Future.

With regard to the Continuous Tenses (e.g., *I am coming*), and the Compound forms with the *do* (see §§ 39b, 44. 3), there has been very slight, if any, weakening of the original meaning of the auxiliary verb.

NOTE.—The above explanation of the Present Perfect Tense is not applicable to examples like *I have gone*. The reason is that this is not an ‘organic’ growth of the language, but is due to the working of analogy; in the oldest periods we have always ‘*I am gone*,’ and *have* has been substituted in later times by assimilation to the Present Perfect of transitive verbs.

### Tenses of the Indicative.

- 119 The **Present** is used :—
1. To mark an action as *now going on*, or a state as *now existing*:  
Here he *comes*.  
It now *draws* towards night.  
Whose house *is* that I *see*?  
The war *continues* in all its horror.
- 120  An action *now going on* is however, very frequently expressed by the Present Continuous (see § 134).
- 121 2. To mark an action as *recurring habitually in the present* (Habitual Present):  
I *write* scores of letters daily (= *am wont to write*).  
He *gets* up every day at six o'clock.  
You *take* water as a rule, I think.  
Professor B. *lectures* on philosophy the whole year.
- 123  The Present Continuous is also used to express the Habitual meaning, but with a difference (see § 134 b).  
By an extension of these meanings the Present comes to be used :—
- 124 3. To denote what is true at all times (including the present):  
Twice two *is* four.  
Fortune *favours* the brave.  
Next Wednesday *is* Christmas Day.  
The sacred writer *says*, ‘All flesh *is* grass.’  
Horses *are* quadrupeds.
- 125 4. In vivid narration of past events, instead of the Past (Historical Present):  
News *is* brought of the disaster; the king *does* not dare to appear, but *shuts* himself up in his house.


Now on each side the leaders  
*Give* signal for the charge;  
 And on each side the footmen  
 Strode on with lance and targe.—MACAULAY.  
 . . . . . he *tilts*

With piercing steel at bold Mercutio's breast,  
 Who, all as hot, *turns* deadly point to point,  
 And, with a martial scorn, with one hand *beats*  
 Cold death aside, and with the other *sends*  
 It back to Tybalt, whose dexterity  
*Retorts* it: Romeo he *cries* aloud,  
 'Hold, friends! friends, part!—SHAKSPERE.

Notice in the second example the sudden return to the Past ('strode').

- 126 5. For the Future (as in French and German), chiefly with verbs of motion:

We all *start* in the morning for Paris.  
 Which of you *go* to London next Saturday?  
 We *begin* work next Monday

 The Present Continuous is also used as a Future-equivalent: e.g., *I am going* to town next week. *Are you dining* there on Saturday?

REMARK.—Note the use of the Present of 'to hear' in a Perfect sense, e.g., 'We *hear* that you have been successful.' 'We hear' = 'We are the recipients of the news,' which implies that the action of hearing is really past. 'I learn', 'I am told' are similarly used. Cf. Greek *νικᾶν* 'to be the victor', *i.e.* 'to have conquered.'

- 127 The **Past** is used :—

1. To describe an action as *occurring in the past*:

William the Conqueror *landed* in A.D. 1066.  
 Who *took* your hat, *did* you say?  
 When they *woke*, it was broad day.

This is the common narrative tense in past time.

OBS.—A notably idiomatic use of this tense is seen in the following, where it expresses that the action or state began a short time—perhaps a few moments only—before the time of speaking,

but not excluding the possibility of its continuing up to and during the time of speaking:—

*A.* I have been very ill. *B.* I *thought* you *looked* pale.

*A.* I am sorry Mr. C. is not in. *B.* Oh, I only *called* to see how he *was*.

*N.B.*—We have ‘looked’ and ‘was’ in accordance with the principle of the Sequence of Tenses (§ 155).

128 So the Past Continuous; *e.g.* in the first example we might say: ‘I *was thinking* you *were looking* pale’.

129 2. To describe an action as *going on in the past*, or a state as *then existing* (Contemporaneous Past):

The town *was* in an uproar: men *shouted*, women *wept*, dogs *barked*.

Whose house *was* it that I *saw*?

People *used* to believe that witches *rode* on broomsticks.

As he *hung* in mid air, he *felt* his strength failing.

130 3. To describe an action as *recurring habitually in the past* (Habitual Past):

I *rose* every day at six (= *was wont to rise*).

Scottish kings *were crowned* at Scone (= *used to be crowned*).

131 The **Future** is expressed by means of *shall* and *will*, § 201.

131b Two Future-equivalents are in common use, *viz.*, ‘to be about to —’, ‘to be going to —’; they are of almost identical meaning (= ‘to be on the point of’), the chief distinction being that the former is literary and the latter colloquial. They may be called ‘Immediate’ Futures:

He *is (was) about to* write = Latin *scripturus est (erat)*.

Who *is going to* tell us a story?

I *was going to* tell you one, but I shall not now.

The colloquial form often conveys the idea of there being something proposed or in prospect:

They *are going to* make all sorts of new rules in Parliament.

132 The **Perfect**, **Pluperfect**, and **Future Perfect** are used to describe a *present, past, or future state (respectively) resulting from a completed action*.

I *have* now *seen* Paris, which I *have* long *wished* to see.

I *had seen* London before I was ten years old.

By this time next year I *shall have seen* Berlin.

I wonder when he *will have finished* playing with that garden-roller.

It is to be hoped that the rapidity with which Lord Roberts has moved *will have saved* the mines of Johannesburg.

OBS.—The Perfect *I have got* is used colloquially as a Present-equivalent = ‘I have’, ‘I possess’. Contrast ‘He has got [= has] a bad cold’ with ‘He has got [= has obtained] no end of prizes in his time’. The other Perfect Tenses of ‘get’ will, of course, bear corresponding meanings.

- 133 The **Secondary Future** and **Secondary Future Perfect** describe an action or the completion of an action (respectively) as *in prospect in the past*. In other words, they are the Future and Future Perfect of the past.

I said that I *should* soon *return* (= *was about to return*).

I said that I *should have returned* by June 10th.

OBS. 1.—These sentences are the Past forms corresponding to—

I say that I *shall* soon *return*.

I say that I *shall have returned* by June 10th.

OBS. 2.—*Should* is here an Indicative, and quite distinct from the *should* of Conditional Sentences, which is a Subjunctive.

## 134 The Continuous Tenses.

All the Tenses enumerated above have corresponding Continuous Forms; these describe an action as *going on* or a state as *existing* at some time or during some period, or as *having been continued* up to some point of time present, past, or future.

The period or point of time may be either expressed or implied. Thus, ‘*Are you enjoying yourself?*’ implies ‘now’ (= at this moment, or during the period of which we are thinking, e.g., during a stay somewhere). When a Continuous Tense refers to a period of action, it often implies habit, e.g., ‘*I shall be dining alone all next week*’, ‘*He had been taking no exercise for months past*’

He *has been writing* the book all over again. [*i.e.* (say) since he found so many mistakes in it. 'He has written' would mean definitely that the book is finished; 'he has been writing' does not.]

I believe you *have been travelling* a good deal. [*i.e.*, up to the present, or since you left home, etc.]

To-morrow we *shall be seeing* him off to France.

I said I *should have been coming* back just when he was *thinking* of going away.

Italy and Spain lay hushed beneath the terror of the Inquisition, while Flanders *was being* purged of heresy by the stake and the sword.

As we have seen above (§ 126), the Continuous Present may also be used with Future meaning.

**134b** Observe that the Simple Tenses coincide partly with the Continuous Tenses, *i.e.*, they may be used to denote the same act or state. Thus one may say 'I live at Oxford' or 'I am living at Oxford,' indifferently, if one means that Oxford is one's present place of abode. But, if one wishes to denote a habit, one generally says 'I live at Oxford in winter,' *not* 'I am living at Oxford in winter.'

**134c** The Continuous forms are sometimes used idiomatically without implying anything 'continuous', e.g. 'What *have you been doing* to that picture?' | 'Someone *has been tampering* with this lock'. These are different from *have you done, has tampered*; they give an emotional colouring to the sentence, and express surprise, disgust, impatience, or the like.

#### THE TENSES OF THE INDICATIVE IN SUBORDINATE CLAUSES.

**135** All the Tenses of the Indicative may occur with their ordinary meanings in all subordinate clauses where the Indicative is possible. But in the following cases the common usage is marked by a certain inaccuracy in the employment of some Tenses instead of others, which is not generally found in foreign languages.

**136** 1. In subordinate clauses referring to a point of time anterior to that of the principal clause we have often—

(a) the Present instead of the Perfect :

When morning *comes* [= *has come*], the fog usually clears away.



(b) the Past instead of the Pluperfect :

When morning *came* [= *had come*], the fog cleared away.

137 2. In subordinate clauses referring to future time, we commonly have (cf. § 47. 2b)—

(a) the Present instead of the Future or Future Perfect :

As soon as he *comes* [= *shall come* or *shall have come*], I shall go.

If he *comes* [= *shall come*], I shall go.


(b) the Perfect instead of the Future Perfect :

As soon as he *has come* [= *shall have come*], I shall go.

The letters must be posted as soon as they *have been stamped* [= *shall have been stamped*].

(c) the Past or Pluperfect instead of the Secondary Future or Future Perfect :

As soon as he *came* or *had come* [= *should come* or *should have come*], I was to go.

 For the Sequence of Tenses, see § 155.

## The Subjunctive Mood.

138 1. The Subjunctive is a Mood of *Will*; in its simplest uses it expresses *desire*, and all its uses can be traced to this primary meaning, which may be denoted by *shall* or *should*. Thus the Subjunctive is closely allied in meaning to the Imperative.

The term *Subjunctive*, like many other grammatical terms, is misleading. It is derived from the Latin *subjunctivus* as used by the Roman grammarians, and means 'proper to be subjoined' (*i.e.*, used in subordinate clauses). It is clear that such a description of the Mood is wrong in two respects: many subordinate clauses do require the Subjunctive, but a greater number require the Indicative; on the other hand, the Subjunctive is required in many simple sentences and principal clauses.

2. In modern English the use of the Subjunctive Mood is much restricted as compared with its use both in earlier periods of our language and in foreign languages. Its range in O.E. was much the same as in Latin and modern German. In O.E. and M.E., and even down to Elizabethan times, its use was very free, and we find it in all kinds of subordinate clauses where the verb is

not intended to imply a fact. In simple sentences and principal clauses there was no restriction put upon its use, whereas now we employ it only in certain kinds of clause and certain stereotyped expressions.

O.E. differs from many other languages in requiring a Subjunctive in all dependent statements which do not decidedly express a fact.

3. The Subjunctive, therefore, has to a great extent suffered decay; and this has been due to two causes, which interacted one upon the other: (1) the loss of most of the inflexions which distinguished the tenses of the Indicative from those of the Subjunctive; (2) the obliteration of thought-distinctions; hence the substitution of Indicatives for Subjunctives (cf. the inaccurate use of certain tenses of the Indicative, §§ 136, 137). The process has been furthered by the general substitution in subordinate clauses of *may*, *might*, *shall* and *should* for the simple Subjunctive; e.g. *lest he may die* or *lest he should die* for *lest he die*. In point of fact, these auxiliary words are themselves Subjunctive in origin, but they have to some extent ceased to be felt as such, while there is nothing in their form to distinguish them from Indicatives.

4. It is incorrect to say (as is sometimes said) that the Subjunctive, except in the case of *be* and *were*, is an extinct Mood. It is true that these are the only distinctively Subjunctive forms in common colloquial use; but we have seen already in dealing with the Cases, that, where there has been an extensive decay of inflexions, it is necessary to consider *meaning* rather than *form*; and this principle must be applied here also. A careful examination of both the colloquial and the literary language shows that the Subjunctive is really a living Mood, and that it can never become extinct without an entire reconstruction of certain classes of sentences, e.g., the Conditional sentences of Class B (§ 55). In these sentences we have the Past Subjunctive referring not to Past time but to Present or to Future time, which a Past Indicative could not do. If we ask 'What is that Mood in English of which the Past Tense does not necessarily refer to Past time?' the only possible answer is 'The Subjunctive'. (Cf. § 153.)

5. The Subjunctive has, however, been *disguised*, except in certain forms, in consequence of the 'levelling' under identical forms of corresponding tenses of the Indicative and Subjunctive. To illustrate this, we will take as an example the verb *eat*.

In Old English we have :

Pres. Indic.	Pres. Subj.	Past Indic.	Past Subj.
ic ete	ic }ete	ic $\bar{a}et$	ic } $\bar{a}ete$
thu itst (etest)	thu }ete	thu $\bar{a}ete$	thu } $\bar{a}ete$
he itt (eteth)	he }ete	he $\bar{a}et$	he } $\bar{a}ete$
we }etath	we }eten	we } $\bar{a}eton$	we } $\bar{a}eten$
ge }etath	ge }eten	ge } $\bar{a}eton$	ge } $\bar{a}eten$
hi }ete	hi }eten	hi } $\bar{a}eton$	hi } $\bar{a}eten$

In Middle English :

I ete	I }ete	I eet	I }eet(e)
thou etest	thou }ete	thou eete(st)	thou }eet(e)
he eteth, etes	he }ete	he eet	he }eet(e)
we }eteth,	we }ete(n)	we }eete(n)	we }eete(n)
ye }ete(n)	ye }ete(n)	ye }eete(n)	ye }eete(n)
they }ete(n)	they }ete(n)	they }eete(n)	they }eete(n)

In Modern English :

I eat	I }eat	I ate	I }ate
thou eatest	thou }eat	thou atest	thou }ate
he <b>eats</b>	he }eat	he ate	he }ate
we }eat	we }eat	we }ate	we }ate
you }eat	you }eat	you }ate	you }ate
they }eat	they }eat	they }ate	they }ate

From these tables we see that the only surviving difference of form between corresponding tenses of the two Moods is in the 3rd person singular of the Present; (the 2nd person singular is negligible because it is restricted to poetic and religious use).

6. We are now enabled to establish a test of Mood in the many instances in which the form of the verb is no guide: (*a*) in present time, turn the verb in question into the 3rd person singular; e.g., in 'It is necessary that I *remain* here', 'remain' is Subjunctive, because we can say 'that he *remain* here' in the same kind of clause; (*b*) in past time, substitute some phrase containing *were*, which would leave no doubt as to the Mood; thus, for 'I wish I *had* a violin', we may substitute 'I wish it *were* possible for me to have a violin'.

**Caution.**—The careless colloquial use of the Indicative for the Subjunctive (e.g., 'I wish it *was* possible' instead of 'were possible') should be avoided in serious writing.

139 The uses of the Subjunctive are as follows :—

### I.—In Simple Sentences and Principal Clauses.

1. To express (i) a wish or request that something may be ;  
(ii) a concession. This is now confined to certain fixed phrases (§§ 42.1, 43). Present Tense only.

God *bleſs* you !  
Long *live* the king !  
*May* I live to ſee it !  
Woe *betide* thoſe who come late.  
So *be* it. *Be* it ſo.  
*Be* that as it may, . . (§ 43).

The uſes exemplified in the following quotations are ſtill poſſible in poetry :

*Prepare* we for our marriage.—SHAKS.  
If ever I were traitor,  
My name *be* blotted from the book of life.—SHAKS.  
Woe *worth* the day.—*Bible*.  
Thy kingdom *come*.—*Bible*.

- 140 2. To expreſs an unfulfilled wiſh (§ 42.2). (Now poetical.)  
Paſt Tense only.

O *could* I feel what I have felt and be  
what I have been !

- 141 3. In the principal claule of conditional ſentences implying a negative (§ 55). *Should*, *would*, *could*, *might*, *muſt* (§§ 204, 206, 211-213)—and in poetry *were* (= would be), *had* (= would have)—are now the only verbs which occur.

I *would* not tell, if I knew.  
If thou hadſt been here, my brother *had* not died.—*Bible*.

- 142 The *if*-claule is often ſuppreſſed :

I *ſhould* like to go. [Implying ‘if I could’ or the like.]  
How *would* you expreſs it ?  
Anyone *might* ſee that he is not well. [*i.e.*, if they looked.]

### II.—In Subordinate Clauses.

- 143 Its chief uſes are :—

1 In conditional ſentences of Claſs B (§ 55). The tense is either Paſt (ſee §§ 138. 4, 153) or Pluperfect.

- 144 2. In claules introduced by *if* or *though* ſubordinated to *as* or *than* representing a comparative claule (§ 60) :

I feel as if (as though) I *were* going to fall.

145 3. In conditional sentences of Class C (§ 57), where the Subjunctive implies *reserve*, or is *restrictive*. 'If it *be* so' = 'granted that it be so', or almost 'even if it be so'. (In ordinary speech this is not common except with *be*.)

146 4. In noun clauses :

(1) depending on a verb of will, request, or effort, and certain impersonal expressions (see § 68d, 69). This is exceedingly common at the present time in formal language, statutes, notices, and the like ; indeed, an Indicative would be quite incorrect in such clauses. (The Past Tense is not common.)

It is requested that letters to the Editor *be* written on one side of the paper only.

The regulation is that no candidate *take* a book into the examination room.

It is a standing rule in golf-clubs that every one *replace* the turf which he cuts up.

(2) depending on the verb 'to wish' and the now archaic 'would' (= I would, § 42), to denote that which is wished :

I wish I *were* (*had* been, *could* have been) there.

Would he *had* not died !

OBS.—The origin of the Subjunctive in such clauses is intelligible when we convert them into their original independent form :

(O) were I there ! (*expression of wish*, § 42) : I wish that.

(O) had he not died ! I would (= I should wish) that.


147 The following uses of the Subjunctive in subordinate clauses are now confined to the literary language :

5. To mark an action or state as in prospect. This use in Temporal clauses is treated in detail in § 47. The Past Subjunctive is not common, and its identity of form with the Past Indicative often makes the Mood doubtful. In a sentence like 'They waited till the ship *sailed*', the Mood is doubtless Indicative ; but in 'They intended to wait till the ship *sailed*', it may be regarded either as a Subjunctive denoting an action in prospect in the past (= 'till the ship *should* sail'), or as an Indicative substituted for Subjunctive, just as in 'They intend to wait till the ship *sails*', we have 'sails' where the more careful usage the of older language would require 'sail'.

- 148 6. In final clauses introduced by *lest* (§ 50.2):  
 Lord God of Hosts, be with us yet,  
 Lest we *forget*, lest we *forget*.—KIPLING.
- 149 7. In concessive clauses (§ 58):  
 Though he *make* every effort, he cannot succeed.  
 Though he *were* dead, yet shall he live.—*Bible*.
- 150 8. In general relative clauses (§ 65):  
 Calm, but not overcast, he stood  
 Resigned to the decree, whatever it *were*.—BYRON.  
 However it *be* between nations, certainly it is so between man and  
 man.—BACON.
- 151 9. In dependent questions (§ 70b):  
 Even those who had often seen him were at first in  
 doubt whether he *were* truly the brilliant and graceful  
 Monmouth.—MACAULAY.  
 And the headsman with his bare axe ready . . .  
 Feels if the axe *be* sharp and true.—BYRON.  
 I wonder if Titania *be* awaked.—SHAKS.  
 All men mused whether he *were* Christ.—*Bible*.

OBS.—'If' is here interrogative = 'whether' (Latin *num*, not *si*).

- 152 The following quotations exhibit uses of the Subjunctive found in old writers and perpetuated in archaic writing of to-day.
1. Be so true to thyself as thou *be* not false to others.—BACON.  
 [Consecutive Clause with prospective meaning: modern equivalent  
 'as not to be false', § 52.]
  2. 'Tide life, 'tide death, I come without delay.—SHAKS.  
 [Conditional Clause of Class C, § 57, with inversion of subject and  
 verb.]
  3. Therefore they thought it good you *hear* a play.—SHAKS.  
 [Noun Clause, § 68d: modern equivalent 'should hear'.]
  4. But other doubt [=fear] possesses me, lest harm  
*Befall* thee, severed from me.—MILTON.  
 [Noun Clause, § 68e: modern equivalent 'should befall'.]
  5. Greater love hath no man than this, that a man *lay* down his life for his  
 friends.—*Bible*. [Noun Clause with prospective meaning.]

 We have considered above only those cases in which a 'simple' Subjunctive is used; but in many clauses we may have a Subjunctive-equivalent formed with *shall*, *should*, or *may* (*might*), which are themselves originally Subjunctives as thus used: for examples see §§ 47, foll.; cf. § 138. 3. Their substitution for the 'simple' Subjunctive dates back to the O.E. period.

### Tenses of the Subjunctive.

- 153 The Present and Past Tenses of the Subjunctive refer commonly to Present or to Future time (see also §§ 138, 4, 143) :

Long *live* the King !

Beware lest you *get* entangled in the same snare.

If you *did* it [*i.e.*, now or in the future], you *would* repent it [*i.e.*, now or in the future].

If they *could* just see me now !

- 154 The Past Subjunctive may, however, refer to Past time when in sequence (see § 155) upon a Past Tense :

She looked as though she *were* fainting.

OBS.—The Perfect and Pluperfect have their ordinary meanings.

- 155 The **Sequence of Tenses** is the principle in accordance with which the Tense in a subordinate clause “follows” or is adjusted to that of the principal clause ; thus, in general, when the governing clause has a Present, Perfect, or Future, the subordinate clause has a Present (*Primary Sequence*) ; when the governing clause has a Past or Pluperfect, the subordinate clause has a Past (*Secondary Sequence*). The Sequence of Tenses applies chiefly to Final and Noun Clauses :

I *have told* you that you *may* know.

The master *said* we *might* have a holiday.

[The master’s words were : ‘You *may* have a holiday’.]

He *had* no idea what twice two *was*.

I *took* care that he *should* not hear me.

- 155b Very often, however, the Tense is not adjusted, e.g. if it is desired to mark something as true universally or at the time of speaking :

He *had* no idea what twice two *is*.

I *asked* the guard what time the train usually *starts*.

### The Imperative Mood.

- 156 The Subject of an Imperative (*thou, you*) is not usually expressed (cf. § 40) ; it is found, however, rather frequently in the older language (e.g., ‘Go and do *thou* likewise’) and is used sometimes colloquially nowadays with a somewhat contemptuous emphasis in prohibitions, e.g. ‘Don’t *you* go and tell him the secret’.

## VERB-NOUNS AND VERB-ADJECTIVES.

## The Infinitive.

## 157 1. The Infinitive is in origin and use a Neuter Abstract Noun.

The Infinitive has been commonly classed as a mood, in accordance with the usage of Latin grammarians, who called it *modus infinitivus* = 'the indefinite mood'; but its function is not to express the *manner* of an action or to denote the *aspect* under which it is considered, but to express the action itself in the most indefinite manner.

2. In modern English it possesses one form only, but this is employed in two ways, either (*a*) simply, or (*b*) in dependence on the preposition *to*; e.g.

I will *write* soon. The child began *to write*.

3. These two uses represent historically two distinct forms; the simple *write*, for example, is the descendant of O.E. *writan*; *to write* is the descendant of O.E. *tō writenne* or *writanne*. The first, *writan*, is the Nominative and Accusative of a Noun derived from the verb-stem by the addition of the suffix *-an*, which is equivalent in meaning to the *-ing* of the Gerund; the second, *writenne*, *writanne*, is the Dative of the same noun, and was always used with the preposition *tō* ('to') governing it. *Writan*, therefore, means 'writing', *tō writanne*, 'to or for writing', and sometimes 'in writing'.

4. The way in which these two distinct O.E. forms coalesced and became identical was this: *writan* became in the M.E. period *writen*, then lost the *n*, and settled down in its present form *write*, the final *e* in course of time ceasing to be pronounced; *writenne*, *writanne* were levelled under the form *writenne*, whence *writene*, *writen*, *write*. (In many verbs the final *e* has entirely disappeared, as *sendan*, *sende*, *send*.)

OBS.—*To* is not found with the Nom.-Acc. form of the Infin. before the 12th century.

5. In modern English the Infinitive with *to* is much commoner than the bare Infinitive. This has come about by the gradual displacement of the latter by the former in many constructions, notably in the use of the Infinitive as Subject, Object and Predicate Noun. Thus, the Infinitive with *to* lost its Dative (i.e.



Adverbial) meaning, and the preposition became in most cases merely the *sign* of an Infinitive. Compare 'We made the machine *work*' with 'The machine was made *to work*'; 'Conscience bids you *speak*' with 'Conscience commands you *to speak*'.

From early in the 13th century at least, *for to* was also used as a sign of the Infin. = the simple *to*; this was a *weakening* of the use of *for to* = 'in order to', which is of earlier occurrence. These uses are now obsolete in ordinary educated speech. See also § 161.

6. But the *to* is even now *not always formal*. For example, the Infinitive of purpose (e.g. 'I have come *to see* you') retains its full Adverbial meaning and the *to* has its full force of 'in the direction of', 'for the purpose of'.

7. The Infinitive without *to* is used chiefly in dependence on the verbs *shall, will, can, may, must, do, let*, and on simple tenses of *dare* and *need*. So too in dependence on the active voice of the verbs *bid, see, make, hear, feel*; e.g. 'Bid me *come*' (but in the Passive 'I was bidden *to come*'); also after *had better, had or would rather, sooner or rather than*, e.g. 'I would rather *die* than *suffer* so'. Compare also such poetical constructions as 'Phœbus gins (= begins to) *arise*', 'Far liever had I (= should I prefer to) *gird* his harness on', 'I list not *prophesy*', 'Will you please *examine*?', 'How long within this wood intend you *stay*?', 'Yet not Lord Cranstoun deigned she *greet*', 'Help me *scale* yon balcony'. See also § 30.

158 In accordance with its double origin (§157. 3), the uses of the Infinitive in present-day English fall into two main groups:

- (i) those in which it is a Noun-equivalent (§ 9).
- (ii) those in which it is an Adverb-equivalent (§ 11).

159 A. As a Noun-equivalent, it may perform all the functions of an ordinary Noun, as Subject, Object, and Predicate Noun; it always takes *to*, except when governed by a certain class of verbs which are enumerated in § 30:

*To err* (Subject) is human, *to forgive* (Subject) divine.  
 Talking is not always *to converse* (Pred. Noun).—COWPER.  
*To be good* (Subject) is *to be happy* (Pred. Noun).  
 I dare *do* all that may become a man (Object).  
 Learn *to labour* and *to wait* (Objects).  
 Men fear death as children fear *to go* in the dark.—BACON

They love *to see* the flaming forge  
And *hear* the bellows roar (Objects).

(In the last example *hear* is not a case of the bare Infinitive, but is governed by the *to* of *to see*, the force of which is carried on in accordance with idiomatic English usage.)

## REMARKS.

- 160 1. The Subject Infinitive is frequently anticipated by *it* as a Formal Subject (§ 2): *It* is not good *to be* happy too soon.
- 161 2. *It is good for us to be here.* In such sentences the Infinitive forms only a part of the whole Subject 'for us to be here.' Observe that (i) *for us to be here* is equivalent to a *that*-clause, 'that we should be here'; (ii) the *for us* is felt to be dependent on or at least closely connected with *good*; but (iii) the order may be inverted, '*For us to be here* is good', which shows clearly that the Infinitive phrase is a Noun-Equivalent and not an Adverb-equivalent; (iv) the order *for* + noun or pronoun + Infinitive, is invariable.

The history of this construction appears to be as follows. In O.E. we have *gōd is hēr beon* or *tō beonne*, i.e. literally 'good is here be' or 'to be'. The Inf. is originally dative (or locative), the sense being 'there is good in being here'. A noun or pronoun in the dative could be added to denote for whom it is good; hence *gōd is us hēr tō beonne* = 'good [it] is for us here to be'. By the substitution of *for us* for *us* (§ 98) and a slight alteration in order we get the modern form 'It is good for us to be here'. Originally the dative depended closely upon the adjective 'good', but in course of time the unity of the combination 'good for us' was broken, and it became possible to say 'For us to be here is good'; this no doubt being assisted by the use of 'for to' simply as an equivalent of 'to' with the Inf. And thus the group introduced by 'for' has become virtually a Subject, though the sentence may still be analysed as in O.E.

- 162 3. The Infinitive is not common as one of two Objects; with the exception of constructions with the verbs *teach* and *ask*, modern instances are archaic or poetical:

Teach me *to swim*. (= *swimming*: Verb-Noun).

In many apparently similar cases other explanations are possible. Thus 'Allow me *to pass*' may be taken as equal to 'Allow me *passage*', but many prefer to regard it as an Accusative and Infinitive construction (§ 174) = 'Allow *that I pass*'. So with 'Grant me *to know* Thee' = 'Grant me *knowledge* of Thee', or (better) 'Grant *that I may know* Thee'.

- 163 B. As an Adverb-equivalent, the Infinitive with *to* has the meaning of *to* or *for* —*ing*, and sometimes *in respect of* or *in the act of* —*ing*. It is used as follows :—

(a) To express purpose or destination; this is known as the **Infinitive of Purpose** (§ 51) and is found much with verbs denoting motion.

I called *to see* you.

We rose *to leave* the room.

*To make* the affair a complete success, we want more help.

The meaning of purpose may be more fully or unambiguously expressed by *in order to*, and (formerly) by *for to*.

- 164 (b) With the following verbs the idea of purpose tends to become weakened in some cases, though it never entirely disappears :—

*give, entrust, take, receive,*  
*choose, appoint, send, bring,*  
*help, leave,*

and others of kindred meaning.

Give me something *to eat*.

Take this book *to read* on your way.

An official was appointed *to superintend* the operations.

I was left *to do* all the work.

Compare the following :—

It must have been a lovely child

*To have had* such lovely hair.—TENNYSON.

Full many a flower is born *to blush* unseen,

And *waste* its sweetness on the desert air.—GRAY.

- 165 After the verb *help*, also, there has been a tendency in recent times to drop the *to*—a usage which is current in American English (e.g. ‘Help me *bake* the cakes’), and has no doubt been furthered by the regular construction with *hear, feel*, etc. (see § 157.7).

- 166 (c) Depending on certain Adjectives (**Infinitive of Destination**):

*fit, able, meet, bound, ready,*  
*worthy, unworthy,*  
*easy, hard, difficult,*  
*pleasant, unpleasant,*  
*sure, certain,*

and the like. To these must be added the verb-adjectives in *-ed* (Passive Participles) of the verbs mentioned in (*b*), as *appointed*, *destined*, and the like; also the adjectives *first*, *last*:

Unfit *to work*. Worthy *to be numbered* among heroes.

This medicine is pleasant *to take*.

Their feet are swift *to shed* blood.—*Psalm*.

The first *to come*, the last *to go*.

- 167 REMARKS.—I. With some of the above Adjectives the Infinitive has rather a Locative than a Dative meaning, as ‘easy *to do*’ = ‘easy in the doing’, Latin *facilis factu*; ‘pleasant *to know*’; ‘fair *to look upon*’; ‘Is my apparel sumptuous *to behold*?’ (Shakspeare); ‘Deadly *to hear* and deadly *to tell*’ (Scott). If this view is taken, there is no need to regard it as elliptical (e.g. ‘easy for someone to do’), or as an instance of an Active form with Passive sense. In fact the occurrence of the Passive form in this connexion is of comparatively late development.

2. The Adjective-equivalent *about* belongs to this class; e.g. ‘about *to fall*’.

- 168 (*d*) Depending on Adjectives expressing emotion or desire:

*glad, happy, content, delighted, grieved, sorry,*  
*afraid, impatient, anxious, eager,*

and the corresponding intransitive verbs:

*rejoice, grieve, regret.*

I was extremely glad *to be* thus freed for ever from this troublesome fellow.

No one could be happier *to go*.

All wild *to found* a university for maidens.—TENNYSON.

Three boys in the school had boots—I was mad *to have* them too.—THACKERAY.

I regret *to have* to say it.

REMARK.—Most of the above Adjectives and Verbs may take as an equivalent construction, *of, for, or in* with a Verb-Noun, e.g. ‘afraid *of venturing*’, ‘happy *in being able*’, ‘to rejoice *at having won* a victory’.

- 169 (*e*) After the verb *to be*, or *to have* + Object, expressing destination = *for* — *ing*.

He is not *to go*.

I have something else *to do*.

The subject is *to be dropped*.

Nothing is *to be done*.

The end was soon *to come*.

That is *to say*.

It is time *to go*.

The reason is not far *to seek*.

On the further development of this infinitive, see § 173.

REMARK.—From a modern point of view, this Infin. might be regarded as depending upon a passive participle supplied in thought, as ‘He is to go’ = ‘He is intended to go’, ‘The end was soon to come’ = ‘The end was destined soon to come’; but that this is not in all cases the origin of the construction is clear from the fact that in O.E. we have precisely the existing form.

- 170 (f) In absolute or independent constructions like the following :

*To tell* the truth, . .

*To be* quite plain with you, . .

*To be* sure, it is of no importance.

*To resume* the thread of the story, . .

- 171 (g) To express result or consequence, especially after a demonstrative adjective, pronoun, or adverb (see § 52) :

The storm was so fierce as *to tear* up trees by their roots.

I was so weak as *to yield*.

If I live *to finish* the work.

My sister was too young not *to feel* the separation keenly.

The datival character of the Infinitive here may be shown by paraphrasing thus: ‘I was so weak as (= weak enough) *for yielding*’; ‘If I live (i.e. long enough) *for finishing* the work’.

- 172 (h) In dependence on certain intransitive and passive verbs, as *to happen, to seem, to appear, to be seen, heard, felt, known*. Cf. § 15a. 7, p. 22.

He happened *to come*.

He was seen *to fall*.

- 173 C. To the two chief uses of the Infinitive as Noun-equivalent and Adverb-equivalent (treated under A. and B.), must be added a third, namely, its employment as an Adjective-equivalent. This meaning cannot be regarded as inherent in the Infinitival forms, but is to be looked upon rather as a side-development.

The way has been paved for the development of this meaning by the use of the Infinitive treated in § 169.

He is a man *to thrive* in the world.

These shops are *to let* or *to be let*.

There are nine runs *to make* and two wickets *to go* down.

Here the Infinitive is equivalent to the Latin gerundive (e.g. 'which was *to be done*' = L. 'quod erat *faciendum*'), which is a Verb-adjective; or to a Latin Relative Clause (*qui* + Subjunctive), which is an Adjective-equivalent (§ 10), e.g. 'There was no general *to send*' = L. 'Nullus erat dux *qui mitteretur*'. Here the Infinitive is equivalent to a *Predicate Adjective*, and from this to an *Attributive* use is but a step.

## EXAMPLES.

☞ Some instances may be explained by ellipsis.

He longed for worlds *to conquer*.

To flee from the wrath *to come*.

The class of people *to be met with* there is not the most select.

[= The class of people which is to be met with.]

The sights *to be seen* are not impressive.

OBS.—The following sentence (from Leigh Hunt) though somewhat forced, is instructive as showing the equivalence of the Infinitive to an adjective: The good is *to come*, not *past*.

## 174 D. The use of the Infinitive as the equivalent of a finite verb.

### The Accusative and Infinitive.

1. To a Predicate of the Third Form (Verb + Object) an Infinitive is frequently added denoting in what respect or by what means the Object is affected by the verbal idea, or in what way the latter is limited; e.g. I saw him *fall*. Here the statement that I saw him is amplified by the addition of an Adjunct which limits the extent of the statement to saying that the particular action in which I saw him was that of falling; 'I saw him *in falling, a-falling*'. Similarly 'Command the boy *to appear*' = 'Command the boy *in the matter of, or with respect to appearing*'.

2. Now, in this form of sentence the Object of the Principal Verb and the Infinitival Adjunct tend to become so closely connected together in idea as to form an indivisible unit. In this way has arisen the construction known as the Accusative and

Infinitive, in which the Accusative is regarded as the Subject of the Infinitive, which thus assumes the function of a Predicate Verb.

3. The degree of connexion between the Accusative and the Infinitive (considered as individual members of the sentence) varies. In some cases the two have become inseparable, e.g. in 'Report declared *him to be dead*'. Here they cannot be separated syntactically because the verb *declare* cannot be said to take a personal Object; 'him to be dead' is equivalent to a *that*-clause (viz. 'that he was dead'), which is the usual, though not universal, equivalent of the Accusative and Infinitive. On the other hand, in a case like 'I heard *the bells ring*', the Object of 'heard' and the Adjunct 'ring' do not form an inseparable combination; the sentence is *not* equivalent to 'I heard *that the bells rang*', which expresses quite a different notion; the Infinitive retains its full adverbial meaning = *a-ringing, in ringing, or as they rang* (Adverb-Clause).

**175** For a discussion of the peculiar form of Accus. and Infin. found in 'It is good *for us to be here*', 'A house fit *for me to live in*', 'The light is too bright *for me to look at*', see § 161; examples, cf. § 68d.

**176** The Infinitive is used as the equivalent of a finite verb with prospective or deliberative meaning:—

1. Without *to*, in certain exclamatory or interrogative sentences with *I* or *we* as subject (expressed or implied):

*I honour thee?* [= Am I to or shall I honour thee?].

Lewis *marry* Blanche?—SHAKS.

I, Peter, *perpetrate* so foul a thing!

I *offer* mischief to so good a king!

*Know* my Creator? *Climb* his best abode,

By painful speculation *pierce* the veil,

*Dive* in his nature, *read* his attributes,

And *gaze* in admiration—on a foe,

Obtruding life, withholding happiness!—YOUNG.

So with an indefinite subject: *Surrender?* Never!

2. With *to*, in relative clauses and dependent questions having the same subject as the governing clause or an indefinite subject:

I do not know when (where, how, whether) *to go*.

I am at a loss what *to think*.

There was nothing with which *to quench* one's thirst.

**177 The Split Infinitive.**—The construction known by this name consists in the separation of *to* from the Infinitive by means of an adverb, e.g. ‘He used *to continually* refer to the subject’, instead of ‘He used continually to refer’, or ‘He used to refer continually’. The construction is becoming more and more frequent, especially in newspapers, but it is generally admitted that a constant and unguarded use of it is not to be encouraged; some indeed, would refuse altogether to recognise it, as being inelegant and un-English. (Instances like ‘For a time, the Merovingians continued *to nominally* rule’ are particularly ugly.) On the other hand, it may be said that its occasional use is of advantage in cases where it is desired to avoid ambiguity by indicating in this manner the close connexion of the adverb with the infinitive, and thus preventing its being taken in conjunction with some other word.

It is not without historical precedent; e.g. in Pecock’s *Repressor* (about 1450) we find ‘for to groundli [= thoroughly] and fundamentali sshowe and prove’; and it no doubt occurs, at least sporadically, from that time down to the present.

### The Tenses of the Infinitive.

**178** The Infinitive has two tenses, Present and Perfect, which have the ordinary meanings belonging to these tenses.

Observe the idiomatic use of the Perfect Infinitive depending upon *can, may, shall, will, (could, might, should, would), must, and ought*. The ‘pastness’ which belongs strictly to the finite verb is transferred to the Infinitive, the reason being that these anomalous verbs (§§ 195-214) have no passive participle; so that instead of saying *he has could do* (= he has been able to do), we must say *he can have done*.

Examples with Latin, French, and German equivalents.

English.	Latin.	French.	German.
I could have gone.	{ potui ire or potuissem ire.	{ j’ai pu aller or j’aurais pu aller.	{ ich habe gehen können or ich hätte gehen können.
You ought to have spoken.	{ debuisti loqui or debuisses loqui.	{ vous auriez dû parler.	{ Sie hätten sprechen sollen.



- 179 **Caution.**—Avoid the erroneous use of the Perfect Infinitive which is exemplified in such sentences as ‘I should have liked *to have gone*’, ‘He had intended *to have written*’. We must say I should have liked *to go*, ‘He had intended *to write*’. The ‘pastness’ belongs to the finite verb and not to the Infinitive. Cf. ‘He had intended *writing*’.

### The Verb-Nouns in -ing, or Gerunds.

- 180 Gerunds are used:—

1. Like ordinary Nouns, as Subject, etc. (cf. § 159):

The *digging* of the foundations is very hard labour.

It will be sure to be long in *coming*.

Now leave *complaining* and begin your tea.

2. With the same construction depending on them as may depend on the verb from which they are formed:

He spoke of there *being a danger* [Pred. Noun].

Your *being strungers* [Pred. Adj.] is what makes me wish to accompany you.

There are two ways of *meeting the difficulty* [Obj.].

Of *making many books* there is no end.—*Bible*.

3. With qualifying Adverbial Adjuncts:

*Staring about aimlessly* will do no good.

There is no *getting to the borders of space*.

4. With qualifying Adjectives:

There’s *no denying* it.

There was *much foolish talking*.

 For the Origin of the Gerund, see *Accidence* § 153.

- 181 1. Great difficulty was experienced in *procuring money*.  
2. *The procuring of money* was a matter of difficulty.

These two are now the normal constructions when the Gerund is followed by an object, the first construction being the more usual in dependence on a preposition. (In this particular instance the two might be interchanged, but this is not always possible.) In Early Mod. E. (about 1500-1800 A.D.) three alternatives existed: *procuring money*, *the procuring of money*, and *the procuring money*, this last being very characteristic of the period.

- 182 Examples of the obsolete construction :—  
Shakspeare has: 'in *the delaying death*'; '*the locking up the spirits*'; 'Nothing in his life became him like *the leaving it*.'  
*The mentioning this* makes me add one more particular concerning Archbishop Laud.—BISHOP BURNET (ante 1715).  
The following passage from Bacon is interesting as containing two of the alternatives current in his time: 'Concerning the means of *procuring unity*, men must beware that in *the procuring or muniting* [= fortifying] of *religious unity*, they do not dissolve and deface the laws of charity'.
- 183 Notice the following alternative constructions, the first involving the use of the Gerund, the second that of the Verb Adjective in -ing (Active Participle):  
What is the use of *his coming*?—of *him coming*?  
He spoke of *its being* cold—*it being* cold.  
We hear every day of *the Emperor's dying*—*the Emperor dying*.  
Forts were erected to prevent *their landing*—*them landing*.
- 183b Some people insist that the first of these constructions should always be used.\* But the second is the older use, and, moreover, involves nothing illogical or inconsistent with other uses of the Participle, which may be generally paraphrased by 'in the act of —ing.' We find a good instance in Clarendon of the Gerund qualified by a possessive: 'Sunday passed without *any man's taking* notice of *the keeper's being* absent.'
- 184 The use of the Gerund governed by *a* (= *in*), e.g. 'I went with other merchants *a-pearl-fishing*', is now archaic and dialectal; but there is a literary survival of it, with the preposition dropped, in 'The church is *building*' (= a-building, in course of building), 'The reformation must still be *doing*, never done'. (Contrast 'Forty and six years was this temple *in building*'.)
- 185 On account of the identity of form between the Verb-Noun and Verb-Adjective in -ing, it is sometimes difficult to determine to which part of speech a particular form belongs. In the following, for example, we may regard *dressing*, etc., either as Participles agreeing with the subject, or as Gerunds (= *a-dressing*, etc.)
- What a long time you are *dressing*!

---

\* If this rule were pressed, we should have to say: 'His premature death prevented *anything's coming* of the scheme'—which can hardly be called English.

He was too much occupied *watching* the passers-by to notice what was said.

They continue *singing* till late in the night.

- 186 **Caution.**—The gerund must be handled carefully with respect to its reference to the rest of the sentence. Do not write, e.g. : ‘After *fighting* the flames for several hours the ship was abandoned’. Here, *fighting* refers grammatically to ‘the ship’, which makes nonsense; say: ‘After they (the crew, etc.) had been fighting . . .’ or ‘After fighting the flames . . . the crew abandoned the ship’. Correct the following: ‘By *pouring* hard peas upon the hatches they became so slippery that the boarders could not stand.’ [Who poured?]

### The Verb-Adjectives or Participles.

187 The Participles are used:—

1. As Predicate Adjectives:

The city lies *sleeping*.

The birds came *hopping* about the windows.

We saw the metal *beaten* into a thin plate.

187b In compound tenses (‘He is *writing*’, ‘He has *written*’, ‘Many letters are *written* every day’) the Participle was originally a Predicate Adjective (cf. § 118. 3): ‘He has *written* a letter’ = ‘He has a letter *written*’: French ‘Il a *écrit* une lettre’ = ‘Il a une lettre *écrite*’ (= Latin ‘Habet epistulam *scriptam*’).

N.B.—Contrast, from a historical point of view, ‘He is *building* a church’ and ‘The church is *building*’ (§ 184).

188 2. As Attributes:—

He was a *squeezing, grasping, scraping, clutching*, covetous old sinner.

The *broken* pitcher goes often to the well.

189 3. In the ‘absolute construction’ (Nominative Absolute, § 61, where the full treatment will be found).

NOTE.—The form employed in the following example is not now common in prose, except in such cases as *this done, this said* (which appear to be imitations of Latin or French, *hoc facto, cela fait*, etc.), *all things considered*.

All things thus *prepared*, and so many lords *driven* and *kept* from the house besides the bishops, and they that were staying there *instructed* how to carry themselves, they [the Parliamentarians] resolved once more to try whether

the House of Peers would be induced to join in the business of the militia (CLARENDON, 1647 A.D.).

The forms *being prepared*, *having been prepared*, (etc.) are now preferred. The first of these forms denotes strictly the existence of a state, the second the completion of an action; but, in practice, they are as a rule used indiscriminately.

- 190 **Caution.**—The Participle must always have a proper ‘subject of reference’. A sentence like the following is incorrect because the word to which the Participle refers grammatically is not that with which it is meant to be connected in sense: ‘*Born* in 1850, a part of his education was received at Eton’. Correct thus: ‘*Born* in 1850, *he* received part of his education at Eton’. Cf. § 61, b. This must be particularly observed in the case of the elliptical ‘while fighting’, ‘though fighting’, etc., in which a *conjunction* is freely coupled with a Participle. Cf. § 186.

### Impersonal Verbs.

- 191 1. This name is applied to a certain class of verbs which are used in the third person singular with a vague subject ‘it’ to express in the most general way that an action is taking place or a state existing. In the Old English and Middle English periods their number was much larger than it is now; those which survive are chiefly verbs denoting natural phenomena, especially those of the weather, as *it rains*, *it snows*, *it thunders*, and similar expressions formed with the verb ‘to be’ as *it is warm*, *it is frosty*, *it is day*, *it is time*. ‘It rains’ = ‘there is rain’, ‘rain is falling’; ‘it is smoking’ = ‘there is smoke’, ‘smoke is present’. So also with extensions of these phrases, e.g., ‘it came on to rain’; ‘it began to be light.’

Occasionally these verbs are used with a personal Subject, as ‘The Lord thundered out of heaven’. Cf. Greek *Zēds ̄ēi*, Zeus rains.

- 192 2. Many verbs originally belonging to this class have lost their impersonal use and have come to be employed solely with personal subjects, by the process described in § 75. 1. We no longer say ‘it liked him’, but ‘he liked’; the same has happened with French-derived words such as ‘repent’ and ‘please’. ‘It repents me’ is still to be found as an archaism, but ‘I repent’ is the regular construction. The true impersonal use of ‘please’, without grammatical subject of any kind, has survived in ‘if you please’,

where 'you' is historically not the subject of 'please', but a dative case depending on it; the expression thus corresponding exactly to the Latin *si tibi placeat*, 'if it please you' (Subjunctive). But since 'you' is ambiguous as to its case-form, it was easily taken as nominative, and hence we get unmistakably the fully developed personal construction in 'if I please', 'if they please'.

- 193 3. As in Latin and Greek, so often in Old English, impersonal verbs which took an oblique case denoting the person affected had no subject expressed. Thus O.E. *me thyrst*, '(it) thirsts me', 'I thirst'; *the lyst* (or *lysteth*), '(it) lists or pleases thee'; so M.E. *wel oughthe us werche*, 'well (it) behoved us to work'; 'Now *es\* erly*, now *es late*, Now *es day*, now *es nyght*' (HAMPOLE, early 14th century).

But in the Middle English period the use of 'it', which occurred fairly frequently in O.E., became regular both with native and French-derived verbs. The subjectless construction still survives, however, in crystallized expressions, as *methinks* = (O.E. *me thlynceth*, it seems to me), *meseems*, and, as we have seen above, in *if you please*. We find it also in the modern language in cases like the following, usually in *as*- and *than*-clauses:

I shall act as *seems* best.

This remarkable general brought about the end of the war much sooner than *was expected*.

As *has been said* already: as far as in *me lies*: as *regards* the question of money: no more than *is* right and just.

The formula 'as *follows*', introducing an enumeration, is likewise an instance of this construction. Through ignorance of its impersonal character, it has sometimes been altered to 'as follow'.

- 194 4. An infinitive with dative or locative meaning is often added to an impersonal verb to particularise the manner or respect in which the action of the verb takes place. Thus we may say simply *it hurts me* = 'there is hurt or injury to me', but we may specify the direction of the hurt by saying *it hurts me to write* = 'there is hurt to me in writing'. In such cases the 'it' has come to assume double function, because it not only indicates the vagueness of the verbal notion, but also serves as a Formal Subject to anticipate the infinitive, which expresses the logical subject of the sentence: *it hurts me to write* = 'to write hurts

\* *Es* is the northern form of *is*.

me'. This is like *it is easy to write* = 'to write is easy' (§ 2). There are therefore two possible ways of analysing such a sentence:

(1) To write (*Subject*)  
It (*Formal Subject*) | hurts (*Verb*)


(2) It (*Subject*) hurts (*Verb*) to write (*Adjunct*).

In a sentence like *It is time to go*, however, the second analysis only is possible, because we cannot convert it into 'To go is time'.

### Anomalous Verbs.

#### I. **Shall** and **will**—**should** and **would**.

- 195 The fundamental meaning of *shall* is 'to be under a necessity', 'to be obliged'. It may often be paraphrased by 'is to'. The fundamental meaning of *will* is 'to resolve'. The past tenses *should* and *would* have meanings corresponding to their respective presents. (Where the past tenses follow the meanings of the present tenses, they will be ranged under the latter in the following sections without further comment; the peculiar uses will receive separate treatment.)

 The faultless idiomatic use of *shall* and *will* is one of the points which are regarded as infallible tests of the correct English speaker; it offers peculiar difficulties to Scots, Irishmen, and Americans; these, however, are not noticed here.\*

- 196 **Shall** and **will** (present indicatives) and **should** and **would** (past indicatives) are used:—

A. With independent meaning—*shall* denoting obligation, necessity, or permission; *will* denoting resolve or willingness.

I *will* (= am resolved to) live a bachelor.

*Will* you (= do you intend or wish to) take it with you,  
or *shall* I (= am I to) send it?

We *will* send someone to fetch you.

He *will* (= is determined to) go, say what you may.

He *would* go, say what I might.

I *would* not (= was unwilling, refused to) answer him,  
when he spoke to me yesterday.

Thou *shalt* not steal. You (he, they) *shall* go this instant.

Where the tree falls, there it *shall* lie.

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\* The student is referred to an excellent treatise by Dr. Gerard Molloy, *The Irish Difficulty—Shall and Will*.

He found the country in a state of unrest, for reasons which you *shall* hear.

You *shall* repay me at your convenience.

It seemed to him that he could nowhere find in his heart the chords that *should* answer directly to that music.

*Wilt* thou have this woman to be thy wedded wife?

Answer: I *will*.

Walking along the High Street, whom *should* I (he, we, they) meet but my cousin Tom?

197 Note the following peculiarities :

1. In the 2nd Person *will* is sometimes used to express a mild request ; e.g. ' *Will* you tell me the time, please?' ' You *will* light my fire at 7 o'clock .

2. *Shall* is sometimes stronger than *will* ; e.g. ' You will not go away?—I *shall*'. *Will* is occasionally used to express command ; e.g. ' You *will* not go out to day ; you *will* stay in and work'.

198 The past subjunctives **should** and **would** are similarly used in the principal clauses of conditional sentences of class B (§§ 55):

Even if I knew, I *would* not tell (= *should* not be willing to tell).

Wert thou creation's lord, thou *shouldst* not taunt me thus (= *wouldst* not be permitted to taunt me thus).

Contrast their use as mere auxiliaries of mood (§ 204).

199 The past subjunctive **should** is used in all persons virtually as a present indicative—like *ought*, and with the same meaning

You *should* not say that (= You *ought* not to say that = properly 'you *would* be bound not to say that', hence 'it is right for you not to say that')

I know that I *should* not do it, but I cannot help it.

200 The past indicative **would** has often the sense of 'used to', denoting past habitual action. (*Will* occasionally expresses present habitual action ; e.g. 'Courage *will* come and go', Sheridan).

His mind seemed unhinged ; he *would* be always muttering as he went along.

201 B. As auxiliaries of tense.

A mere future event regarded as independent of the present will is expressed by **shall** in the 1st Person and **will** in the 2nd and 3rd. (The Pasts *should* and *would* are used in dependence on verbs of past time.)

I *shal* go to London to-morrow.

Anyone *will* tell you the way if you ask.

If you stay here, you *will* see him pass.

I knew that if you stayed here, you *would* see him pass.

- 202 The Future is not uncommonly employed to express an inferential fact of the present :

This *will* no doubt be the book he referred to.

Note the following peculiarities :

1. In independent questions :—

(a) In the 1st and 3rd Persons *shall* and *will* are used as in independent statements :

*Shall* we see the king in the procession ?

*Will* the parcels be sent out to-morrow ?

(b) But in the 2nd Person that auxiliary is used which is expected in the answer :

*Shall* you go to London to-morrow ? (The expected answer is 'I *shall*'.)

The substitution of *will* would convert the sentence into a kind of request. See above § 200.

2. In dependent statements :—

(a) In the 1st and 2nd Persons the auxiliaries are used as in independent statements :

They tell (told) us we *shall* (*should*) see the king.

You flattered yourself you *would* win the prize.

(b) In the 3rd Person that auxiliary is commonly used which reflects the form of the independent statement :

He was afraid he *should* be drowned. [Independent statement: I *shall* be drowned.]

But it is possible also to say 'He was afraid he *would* be drowned', with no difference of meaning.

- 203 C. As auxiliaries of mood—subjunctives and subjunctive-equivalents

1. In the principal clauses of conditional sentences of Class B, **should** is used in the 1st Person and **would** in the 2nd and 3rd (cf. § 201). For examples see § 55.

Though you said it a thousand times, I *should* not believe it—no one *would* believe it.

- 204 2. In certain subordinate clauses **shall** or **should** is used in all three persons as a subjunctive-equivalent: (a) in clauses in which the action is marked as contemplated or in prospect, §§ 47(b), 48.2, 50, 54, 65; (b) in conditional clauses of class C, § 56; (c) in certain dependent statements and commands, §§ 68a, c, d, 69a.

Note that *should* is used (i) as the equivalent of a *Present* Subjunctive; (ii) as the equivalent of a *Past* Subjunctive in sequence upon a past tense.

(a) There will I hide thee, till life *shall* end.

He refused to reply till the pope's pleasure *should* be known.



Permission to use the reading-room will be withdrawn from any person who *shall* write on any part of a printed book.

(b) If the king *should* fall, } he will fall by fair fighting.  
*Should* the king fall, }

I am sorry that you *should* be so angry (Latin *quod sis tam iratus*).

(c) It is (was) natural that I *should* spend the time with my family.

My aunt intends that you *shall* accompany us.

I took care that he *should* not detect me.

## II. Can, could—may, might—must.

**205 Can** expresses *ability*. It has always independent meaning, *i.e.* it is not used to form tense or mood-equivalents. 'I can' originally meant 'I know' (cf. § 30. 1); with an infinitive it came to mean 'I know how', and hence 'I am able to', 'I have power to'.

**206 Could** is either (1) Past Indicative = *was able*: e.g. 'At a very early age he *could* read and write Latin'; 'He asked me whether I *could* speak Latin' (corresponding independent question, 'Can you speak Latin?'); or (2) Past Subjunctive = *should* or *would be able*: e.g. 'If I *could* tell you, you may be sure I would' (§ 55); 'Where *could* he sleep, if he came?'

It is not always possible to tell what mood *could* is, apart from the context. Thus 'How *could* you do it?' might mean either (1) How did you find it in your heart to do it? or (2) How would you be able to do it?

**207 May** expresses *possibility* or *permissibility*. 'I may' originally meant what 'I can' means now, but when 'can' encroached on the meaning of 'may', the latter began to assume the new meanings which it now bears.

*May* is used (1) as an indicative and (2) as an auxiliary of mood, forming a subjunctive-equivalent.

**208** (1) As an indicative it has two meanings. Thus, 'I may come', when written,\* is ambiguous; it may mean 'It is possible that I shall come' or 'I am permitted to come'; e.g. in 'I may come, but don't wait for me' it denotes possibility, while in 'I may come if I like' it denotes permissibility.

\* In speaking, the intonation of 'I may come' would leave no doubt as to its meaning.

- 209 (2) As a subjunctive-equivalent it is used (i) in wishes as to the future (§ 42.1); (ii) in certain clauses where the action is marked as contemplated or in prospect (see §§ 50, 65-68). Even in these the independent meaning is often traceable:

*May* it not be spoken in vain!

I fear the dog *may* bite you.

Although it *may* seem absurd, it is true.

God grant that it *may* not be spoken in vain

I do entreat that we *may* sup together.

Let me go that *I may* see him at once.

- 210 **Might** is the past tense of *may*, and partakes of all its uses:  
I asked if I *might* come. (Cf. I asked: 'May I come?')  
[Past Indicative].

I feared the dog *might* bite you.

Would that I *might* see his face once more!

- 211 But *might*, like *could*, is sometimes a Past Subjunctive with independent meaning; thus 'I might come' may mean not only 'It was possible for me to come', 'I was allowed to come' (Past Indic.) e.g. in 'He said that I *might* come'; but also 'It would be possible for me to come', 'I should be allowed to come'. Its use as a Past Subjunctive is confined to Conditional Statements, dependent or independent, and the principal clauses of Conditional Sentences:

Anyone *might* do the same if he had the chance.

Can anyone say he *might* not do the same?

If I *might* suggest, I would say . . .

Hence its use in mild requests: '*Might* I be allowed to suggest . . .?'

- 212 **Must** expresses *necessity* and *obligation*. 'He must go' = 'He is bound to go', 'It is necessary for him to go'. Historically, *must* is the Past Tense of the O.E. verb *mōtan* 'to be able'. Its use as a Present Tense originates in its use as a Past Subjunctive referring to Present time. 'He must go' = 'He *would* be bound to go (if . . .)'; there being a natural tendency in speaking of obligation to soften harshness by using the form of a Conditional Sentence.

- 213 As a Past *Subjunctive* in Conditional Sentences it means 'would be bound':

If he had looked, he *must* have seen the light of the approaching train [= he would have been bound to see, he would be bound to have seen (cf. § 178).]

Contrast: From these few ruins we may gather what the city *must* have been like in its prime [= is bound to have been like.]

- 214 The use of *must* as a Past *Indicative* is now limited to actual or virtual Oratio Obliqua; i.e., the clause containing *must* is subordinated either *actually* or *in thought* to a verb in Past time:\*

The desire for the boots was so great that have them I *must* at any rate. [Reported form of 'I *must* have them'.]

He said he *must* speak with his master. [Reported form of 'I *must* speak with my master'.]

He could not be idle: he *must* always be doing something. [He said to himself: 'I *must* always be doing something'.]

There he lay in the dungeon. Yet a few hours more, and he *must* die a shameful death. [He thought: 'A few hours more, and I *must* die a shameful death'.]

#### ADJECTIVES

- 215 The Adjective is used:—

1. As a Predicate Adjective: see §§ 2, 9.
2. As an Attribute: see § 6.
3. As a Noun-equivalent: see § 9 (3).

- 216 OBS. 1.—When used as Noun-equivalents, Adjectives (i) may be preceded by *the*, e.g. '*The poor* (=those who are poor, poor people) ye have always with you'; or (ii) may stand unqualified, but in this case there must be two or more Adjectives coupled together, e.g. '*big and little*', '*old and young*', 'through *thick and thin*', 'from *grave to gay*, from *lively to severe*'.

- 217 OBS. 2.—*The old* can now only mean (i) 'old men or women' (plural), never 'the old man', except perhaps in very archaic poetry. But the latter use was formerly common, e.g. 'And when the devil was cast out, the *dumb spake*' (O.E. '*se dumba spræc*'); (ii) 'that which is old'.

☞ For examples see §§ 9 (3), 271.

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\* If we are to turn 'When he comes, I *must* go' into the past, we must say; 'When he came, I *had to* go'; 'must' is here impossible.

PRONOUNS AND THE ADJECTIVES CONNECTED  
THEREWITH.

**Personal Pronouns.**

**218** 1. Personal Pronouns, with the exception of *you* and *it*, have distinct forms for the Accusative-Dative Case, which are of use to determine the case of nouns in similar constructions, where the form of the noun gives no clue to its Case. This is shown, for instance, in the case of *but* following a comparative, negative, or interrogative word; thus from the analogy of 'None but *they* have a right to rule', we may conclude that in 'None but *the brave* deserve the fair', the *brave* is in the nominative; on the other hand from a sentence such as 'Was anybody there but *him*?' we may infer that in 'Were they all there but *the captain*?' 'the captain' is accusative.

**219** 2. Personal Pronouns are used, like Nouns, as Subject, as Object, and in the Predicate relation (Predicate Pronoun). For *It is I*, *It is me*, see § 25. 4.

**220** 3. The use of *thou* and *ye* is confined in present-day English to poetry and the language of religion.

Observe that *ye* is historically the nominative, and *you* the oblique form; in fact, *you* as a nominative has simply usurped the place of *ye*. In the Authorised version of the Bible (1611 A.D.), the distinction is throughout carefully preserved (with a very few exceptions) between *ye* (which represents the O.E. nominative *ge*), and *you* (which represents the O.E. accusative-dative *zow*). But long before this, *you* had begun to displace *ye* as nominative, and *ye* in turn to be misused as an oblique case; Shakspeare has instances, e.g. 'I do beseech *ye*, if *you* bear me hard, . . .'

**221** 4. *We* is used for *I* as a 'plural of majesty' by sovereigns and other persons of high rank when using formal or official language.

*We* have made inquiry of you, and *we* hear

Such goodness of your justice, that *our* soul

Cannot but yield you forth to public thanks.—SHAKS.

(A Duke is speaking; later on in the scene, talking familiarly, he uses 'I').

The origin of this usage is to be found in O.E., where the King frequently in the early part of a document made use of *ic* = I, and then went on with *we*, meaning 'I and my advisers', 'I and my court'.

**222** *We* is also used to avoid the egotism of the repetition of 'I'. One of the commonest instances of this is what is termed the 'editorial *we*', which is used by writers in newspaper articles; for example:

*We* do not say that everything in these essays is as good as what *we* have quoted.

Somewhat similar is the use of 'us' in colloquial phrases like 'Let's see' = French *Voyons*.

223 *We* is often employed colloquially, like 'you', as an Indefinite Pronoun = 'one'.

224 5. The Personal Pronouns of the Third Person are sometimes used to repeat the Subject of a sentence. In ordinary speech it is a vulgarity or a mark of carelessness, or is due to hesitation; in literary language, it may give a picturesque or graphic touch to a sentence. It is not infrequent when the subject and verb are far apart, in which case its insertion serves to resume the thread of the discourse.

The Lord, *he* is the God.

A frog *he* would a-wooing go.

Year after year my stock *it* grew.

The prophets, do *they* live for ever?

*It* was worth remembering, that scene.

Occasionally, when the Object comes first in a sentence, it may be repeated by a pronoun:

The lofty city, he layeth *it* low.

225 6. *He, she, it* are really *Demonstrative* Pronouns, and mean respectively 'that or the man, woman, or thing'. This comes out in expressions like 'he of the bottomless pit', 'he of the mailed fist', 'she of the auburn hair'.

#### It.

226 The uses of the Pronoun *it* may be classified under two headings:

I. Those in which *it* represents definitely some noun or noun-equivalent.

1. Under this heading come, of course, the cases in which it has the full meaning properly belonging to a Personal Pronoun as taking the place of a noun.

227 2. Secondly, we have its use as a Formal Subject (§ 2 note 1) in which *it* represents an infinitive or subordinate clause following:

*It* is impossible *to deny the existence of evil* = To deny the existence of evil is impossible.

*It* is fully expected *that the result will be favourable* = That the result will be favourable is fully expected.

- 228 It is to be noted here that English idiom now frequently requires that a noun clause or an infinitive playing the part of an Object should be anticipated by *it*; this gives rise to what may be correspondingly called a *Formal Object*:

to find *it* easy to . . .  
 to think *it* hard that . . .  
 to bring *it* about that . . .  
 to see to *it* that . . .

The reason for this insertion of *it* seems to be that the noun clause is not clearly felt to be the Object of the sentence as it appears to be in Latin or French, where we should have simply:

*efficere ut . . . , curare ut . . .*  
*faire que . . . , trouver bon de . . .*

The construction without *it*, however, is the regular one in a few expressions; e.g., 'He tried to make out that he was the heir' [not 'make it out']; 'If you think fit to take such steps . . .'

- 229 3. *It* frequently has the meaning of 'the person or thing thought of, mentioned, under discussion, or in question':

Who is *it*? (= the person who has come, is at the door, etc.)

*It* is the postman.

Well, what is *it*?

*It* is the prince and princess.

*It* was an English ladye bright.—SCOTT.

Cf. the similar use of *that* in 'Is that you?'

- 230 II. Those uses in which *it* has a vague meaning, sometimes = 'things' or 'things in general'.

1. The greater number of these come under of the head of Impersonal verbs (§§ 192 foll.) and kindred uses:

*It* is warm.

So *it* says in the book. (= There is a saying.) This use is old; it occurs in Robert of Brunne's Chronicle (about 1330 A.D.): '*It* sais in a storie . . .'

This applies only to the grown-up; with children *it* is different (= there is a difference, things are different.)

*It* is not thus with music; still less is *it* so with poetry.

*It* looks as if we were going to have a storm.

- 231 2. Occasionally 'it is' = French *il y a* with expressions of time:  
*It is* some time since I saw you.

In Middle English, *it is* often = 'there is', as: *It was* once a kynge.

- 232 3. As an Object with vague meaning after an intransitive verb (cf. § 83):

Come and trip *it* as you go  
 On the light fantastic toe.—MILTON.  
 Foot *it* featly here and there.  
 Lord Angelo dukes *it* well.—SHAKS.

Compare colloquial and slang expressions like 'to rough *it*', 'to hook *it*', 'to go *it*', etc.

### Possessive Adjectives and Pronouns.

- 233 The Possessive meaning of the Adjectives becomes as wide and vague as it is in the case of Nouns, and often denotes generally 'coming within the realm, sphere, or scope of', 'having connexion with one', or even 'that one knows of'. So in such phrases as the following:

*My* Lord and *my* Lady quarrelled.  
 Everybody should know *his* Shakspeare.  
 I am afraid you haven't read *your* Bible.  
 We fired, and each of us killed *his* man.  
 She is not one of *your* blue-stockings.  
 That was when I broke *my* first window.  
     Jog on, jog on, the footpath way,  
     And merrily hent the stile-a :  
 A merry heart goes all the day,  
     *Your* sad tires in a mile-a.—SHAKSPERE.

☞ Special uses of the Possessive Adjectives follow those of the Personal Pronouns to which they belong (see §§ 218-223).

- 234 A Possessive Adjective or Pronoun has sometimes a Relative depending on it; in such cases *my*, (*mine*), *his*, *their*, (*theirs*), etc. are mentally analysed as *of me*, *of him*, *of them*, etc.; e.g.

Nor better was *their* lot *who* fled.—SCOTT.  
 Hard is *our* fate  
*Who* serve in the state.—ADDISON.  
 Let grief and sorrow still embrace *his* heart  
*That* doth not wish thee well.—SHAKS.

This is a purely literary construction.

#### PECULIARITIES.

- 235 1. In a few phrases the equivalent with *of* has survived where we should rather expect the Possessive form to appear; e.g.

It will be the death *of me*.  
 For the life *of me*, I can't tell why.

In contemptuous or threatening use it seems to give a particular emphasis :

I'll break the neck *of you* !

Cf. 'to break the pate *of thee*' (SHAKSPERE).

- 236 2. The usage with the noun *sake* shows a special peculiarity. We do not say 'for the sake *of me*' or '*of them*', but 'for *my* or *their* sake'; in cases like the following, however, we have the choice of two constructions: 'for the sake *of me* and the children', 'for *my* sake and the children's'.
- 237 3. Note that 'These are *three* friends *of mine*' and 'These are *three of my* friends' have different implications; the second implies that I have more than three friends; the first does not. So: 'In the study you will find *some* papers *of mine*—*some of my* papers'.

### Reflexive Pronouns.

- 238 1. The ordinary Personal Pronouns acquire Reflexive meaning when they refer to the subject of the sentence or clause in which they occur :

I pulled the ladder up after *me* (= *myself*).

He made me move nearer to *him* (= *himself*).

You are too proud of *your* ancestry.

- 239 2. In earlier periods of the language they were regularly used reflexively as the objects of *transitive* verbs; this is now confined to poetry :

O Lord, haste *thee* to help me.

**Caution.**—Distinguish this use from that with *intransitive* verbs, as 'He sat *him* down' (§ 98).

- 240 3. In the English of to-day this function is performed by the forms compounded with **-self**: *myself*, *thysself*, *himsself*, *herself*, *itsself*, *oneself*, *yoursself*, *yourselves*, *themselves*.

How can I bring *myself* to do it?

Pray do not inconvenience *yoursself*.

He believed *himsself* to be possessed of miraculous powers.

- 241 DOUBLE ORIGIN OF FORMS COMPOUNDED WITH **-SELF**.

(i.) In Old English, *self* was properly a Definitive Adjective, which agreed with the Pronoun to which it was joined: e.g. *ic selfa* (Nominative), 'I self', *min selfes* (Genitive), 'of me self', *mē selfum* (Dative), 'to me self'. The Dative combination, which was very common, early established itself as equiva-



lent to the simple *self*; hence it was even joined to the Nominative, perhaps as a kind of weakened Dative of Interest; e.g. *ic mē selfum = ic selfa*.

(ii.) *Self* was also early used as a Noun; so M.E. *mē* (= *mīn*; Genitive) *self*, 'the self of me'. The forms derived from the Genitive gradually supplanted the forms derived from the Dative, both as a Definitive Adjective and as a Reflexive Pronoun. Thus we have *myself, thyself, yourself, one's self* (contracted *oneself*), *ourselves, yourselves*. But in *himself, themselves* the forms derived from the Dative have survived. (Compare however the dialectal *hissel, theirselves*.)

- 242 4. The forms in *-self* are also used in apposition with Personal Pronouns, by way of emphasizing them, as *I myself, you yourself, they themselves*. In this position they become Definitive Adjectives, i.e. Adjectives defining more exactly the words to which they refer.
- 242b 5. By the omission of the Pronoun these forms came to be used themselves as emphatic pronouns; this is poetical:  
*Myself* would work eye dim and finger lame.—TENNYSON.  
 Direct not him whose way *himself* will choose.—SHAKS.

### Interrogative Pronouns and Adjectives.

- 243 1. *Who, whom, whose* refer to persons only. (Formerly *whom* and *whose* were of all genders.)
- 244 2. *What*, Pronoun, being neuter, refers to things without sex.
- 245 3. *Which*, Pronoun and Adjective, and *what*, Adjective, refer to both persons and things.
- 246 4. The old Interrogative Pronoun *whether* (= which of two) is still sometimes used archaically.

Examples:

*Who (what)* is that? *Whom (what)* have we here?  
*Whether* is greater, the gift or the altar?—*Bible* (1611).  
 I do not know *which* of these two it is.  
 Tell me *what* you are thinking of.  
 Take it, no matter *whose* it is.  
*What* is the extent of the damage?  
*What* two people will be found to agree on this?  
*Which* man was it? *Which* is the house?

. . . to unfold

*What* worlds or *what* vast regions hold  
 The immortal mind that hath forsook  
 Her mansion in this fleshy nook.—MILTON.

247 **Relative Pronouns** : *who* (Accusative-Dative *whom*, Genitive *whose*), *what*, *which*, *that*, *as*. **Relative Adjectives** : *which*, *what*.

✍ In origin (i) *who*, *what* and *which* are interrogative, (ii) *that* is demonstrative, and (iii) *as* adverbial.

248 1. In conversational language the commonest Relative Pronouns are *that*, *which*, and *who*; *that* is used preferably with reference to persons; and *whom* is little used. Thus we tend to say 'the meeting *which* I attended yesterday', rather than 'the meeting *that* . . .'; and again, 'the sister of mine *that* you met' rather than 'the sister of mine *whom* you met'. But more frequently still do we say 'the meeting I attended' and 'the sister of mine you met', the Accusative Relative being as a rule omitted altogether (see § 64).

249 2. The forms *whom*, *which*, in dependence on a preposition, are almost entirely confined to the literary style, since the use of *that* with the preposition detached and placed after the verb of the Relative Clause is particularly convenient for conversational purposes; and, when the Relative is omitted, we have a form of expression which can hardly be matched for conciseness in English or any other language. Thus we say 'the engineer (*that*) I was talking *about*', rather than '*about whom* I was talking'—'the word (*that*) you met *with*', rather than 'the word *with which* you met'.

250 3. But in the literary language *who* and *which* on the one hand, and *that* on the other, have acquired, within comparatively recent times, a distinction in usage which has been already dealt with in § 63c.

251 4. *Who* and *whom* refer to persons only. So too *whose*, as a rule, but it is not infrequently found convenient to use *whose* in reference to things (= *of which*); in this way is avoided the somewhat awkward collocation of *of which* with the definite article: 'A large number of brass discs, *whose* workmanship (=the workmanship of which) shows that they belong to the later period of Celtic art, have been found in Ireland'.

252 5. *Which* often refers to a whole clause or sentence (= 'which fact or circumstance'):

The rain washed away the track, *which* prevented the trains from running.

- 253 6. *That* may be used as an adverbial accusative = 'on which', 'in which', 'at which':  
 I remember the day *that* he came.  
 On the day *that* thou eatest thereof thou shalt surely die.—*Bible*.
- 254 7. *As* is used (i) as a correlative to 'such', 'same'; (ii) in expressions like 'Beasts of prey, *as* lions and tigers'; (iii) = 'a thing or circumstance which', e.g. 'He was a Russian, *as* they could tell by his accent'. (In vulgar speech *as* is the universal Relative Pronoun; it had formerly some literary standing.)
- 255 8. The Relative Adjective *which* is always equivalent to *and* (or *but*) *this* (or *that*), and these equivalents are now usually preferred as a matter of style. It is almost exclusively employed to qualify a noun repeated from the preceding sentence, and in the phrases *which last*, *which latter*.

The Relative Adjective *what* = *that* or *those* . . . *which*; e.g. 'I showed him *what* clothes I should wear'. (Contrast 'I asked him *what* clothes I should wear': *what* is here interrogative and introduces a dependent question, § 70a.)

Note the poetical phrase *what time* = 'at the time at which', 'when':

I made thee miserable  
*What time* I threw the people's suffrages  
 On him that thus doth tyrannize o'er me.—SHAKS.

#### REMARKS.

- 256 1. *That* is the oldest of the Relatives. In O.E. it was Neuter only, being the neuter of the Demonstrative Pronoun-Adjective *se, seo, that*,\* which were combined with the indeclinable Relative *the*; thus *se the, seo the, that the* = 'he who', 'she who', 'that which'. Ultimately *that* entirely supplanted *the* as the universal Relative.
2. *Who, what, which* were originally Interrogative (*wh*-words), but in M.E. were substituted for the older Relatives of Demonstrative form (*th*-words); see § 298 Obs. *What* took the place of the earlier *that that*, O.E. *that that*, which existed side by side with *that the*.
- Ha! that thou hadst seen *that that* this knight and I have seen!—SHAKS.
3. The restriction of *which* to neuter antecedents is a comparatively modern one; cf. 'Our Father *which* art in heaven'.
4. *That* was formerly used = 'that that', 'that which', 'what'; e.g. '*That* thou doest, do quickly' (*Bible*, 1611).
5. *But* may be used = 'who (what or which) . . . not' when the principal clause is negative or interrogative; e.g. 'There was not a heart (What heart was there?) *but* felt the pang of disappointment'.

\* *Se, seo, that* was (a) the O.E. definite article; (b) a demonstrative and relative pronoun in the combinations mentioned in this paragraph.

TABLE OF CORRELATIVES.

Interrogative.		Demonstrative.	Relative.	
Pronouns.	who? what?	this that	Individual.	General.
			who what which that	whoever whatever whichever
Adjs.	what? which?	this that	what which	whatever whichever
Adverbs.	how? when? where? whence? whither?	so then there thence thither		as when where whence whither

### Indefinite Pronouns and Adjectives.


- 257 The following are used as Pronouns and Adjectives: *any, one, other, another, each, either, neither, some, all, many, few, enough, both.*
- 258 The following are used as Pronouns only: *anyone, none* (singular or plural), *someone.*
- 259 The following are used as Adjectives only: *a, an* (Indefinite Article, see §§ 273-6), *else* (e.g. *somebody else* = 'somebody other').
- 260 When Indefinite Pronoun-Adjectives precede a Noun qualified by a Possessive or Demonstrative Adjective, one construction only is possible now, except with *all* and *both*. We must say: '*each of his* (or *these*) pupils'; '(n)*either of his* parents'; '*none of his* friends'; '*many (most, any) of his* plans'. But we may choose between '*all his* time' and '*all of his* time', '*both his* hands' and '*both of his* hands'.
- 261 Formerly greater latitude prevailed in these cases; Shakspeare has 'at *each his* needless heavings', 'of *every these* happened accidents'.
- 262 Contrast the word-order in '*all his* time', and '*his whole* time'.
- 263 *Both our, both your, both their* are sometimes used colloquially to mean *of both of us, of both of you, of both of them*; e.g. 'both our husbands' = 'the husbands of both of us'. This reflects the M.E. *our bōther, bōther our*, etc., in which both pronouns are true genitives. The need for a compact expression of this kind is often felt. We may sympathize with the little girl who,

wishing to state that a certain pet was the common property of herself and her brother, said 'It's both of our donkey'!

264 The Indefinite Pronouns *who* (= 'someone'), *what* (= 'something'), *what* (= 'something'), 'something') survive in a few idioms: viz. in the archaic 'as *who* should say' (= as though someone should say); 'I tell you *what*'; 'I know not *what*'; '*what* not'; '*What* with work, and *what* with worry, he had grown as thin as a lath'.

265 **Caution.**—The possessive and reflexive corresponding to an Indefinite Pronoun are *his* and *himself* respectively (not *their* and *themselves*). Error in this regard is not uncommon; e.g.

Anyone may be a companion of St. George who sincerely does what *they* can to make *themselves* useful.—RUSKIN. [Read *he* for *they*, *himself* for *themselves*.]

 For *you* and *we* as Indefinite Pronouns see § 223.

### The Articles.

*The Demonstrative Adjective the, commonly called the Definite Article.*

266 1. *The* refers back to a person or thing already mentioned and sufficiently defined:

He built a great ship for himself and his companions. . .  
*The* ship's name was Argo.

267 2. *The* identifies:

I have *the* book you want.  
You mentioned a person in a white coat. This is *the* man.

268 3. *The* defines absolutely, that is, marks a person or thing as the only one so called:

*The* Lord (= God). *The* Bible. *The* Scriptures.  
*The* (river) Thames. *The* University of Oxford.  
*The* first folio edition of Shakspeare.  
She sailed into *the* drawing-room most majestically.  
*The* Archduke Charles.

269 4. *The* denotes a class or collective whole:

*The* mammalia. *The* military.  
Youatt's book on *the* horse.  
*The* private is in no way inferior to *the* officer in fight.

Observe, however, that we say 'man' not 'the man' in the sense of 'men collectively'.

270 5. *The*, when pronounced with emphasis, marks a person or thing as unique :

He is *the* pianist of the day.

271 6. *The* is used with adjectives to form noun-equivalents (§ 9.3) :  
*The* wise (= those who are wise).

*The* good, *the* beautiful, and *the* true (= that which is good, etc.).

272 The Definite Article is always suppressed when the noun is qualified by a possessive genitive ; thus, 'a king's daughter' = '*the* daughter of a king', 'the boat's length' = '*the* length of the boat', 'whose shortcomings' = '*the* shortcomings of whom'. 'A king's', 'the boat's' are in reality 'group genitives' (§ 89).

*The Indefinite Adjective a, an, commonly called the Indefinite Article.*

273 1. *A, an* is a weakened form of *one* (O.E. *ān*). The meaning 'one' is seen in expressions like '*a* foot high', 'wait *a* minute' ; *a* is here less emphatic than *one* would be.

274 2. *A* singles out a person or thing and prepares us to hear something more about them :

Once upon a time there was *a* youth named Kilwyeh. Now Kilwyeh set out on *a* gray steed, strong of limb.

275 3. *A* has the indefinite meaning of 'any' :

It is as big as *a* piece of chalk.

*An* island is *a* piece of land entirely surrounded by water.

276 4. *A* is distributive :

Two shillings *a* pound (= each pound, per pound).

Twopence *a*piece (for '*a* piece').

#### ADVERBS.

277 Adverbs should be so placed in a sentence as to make it impossible to doubt which word or words they are intended to affect. Observe in this connexion that qualifying words in English look *forwards* rather than backwards, so that Adverbs should come if possible immediately in front of the words they qualify :

There is nothing that wants to be kept *more* within bounds.  
Some were unwilling to grant *even* this favour.

A few Adverbs, however, have a recognised place *after* the words to which they refer: e.g. *enough*, as 'good *enough*'; *only* in certain instances, as 'They *only* (= they and they alone) have come to this conclusion'; the phrase *at least*, as 'This *at least* is worth our notice'.

**278** Normally, the Adverb qualifying a finite verb follows it, e.g. He sang *well*; cf. also § 279. But some laxity is allowed in the placing of *only*, *merely*, *simply*:

I *merely* came to inform you of the fact. Instead of: I came *merely* to inform, etc.

He has *only* stayed for a week. Instead of: *only* for a week.

OBS.—'Came to inform', 'stayed for a week' are evidently regarded as indivisible units of speech.

**279** When an Adverb qualifies a compound tense its usual position is between the auxiliary and the verb-adjective or infinitive: 'We have *often* been here', 'One should *always* get up early.' But the Adverb is not uncommonly held over to the end of the sentence: 'We shall feel the blow *keenly*'; cf. 'We felt the blow *keenly*'.

**280** **Caution.**—Avoid the Split Infinitive (§177), in which an Adverb comes between the 'to' and the verb-noun.

**281** On Sentence Adverbs see § 14. 4.

**282** The use of *not* in 'I hope *not*', 'I thought *not*', etc., is remarkable; it represents all that is left of a subordinate clause, such as 'that it is *not* so'. It does not strictly qualify 'hope', 'thought'. (But Latin in such cases says 'Non spero', 'Non arbitrabar', etc.)

**283** In modern English two negatives destroy one another. Thus we say: 'I haven't got any', not 'I haven't got *none*'. But formerly double negatives were common where a single one would be now used, and sometimes triple ones are found, e.g.:

'Tis a discreet way concerning pictures in churches, to set up no new, *nor* pull down *no* old.—SELDEN (*Table Talk*).

He *never* yet *no* vileinye *ne* sayde

In al his lyf.—CHAUCER. [*ne* = 'not'.]

**284** **The** is found as an Adverb with comparatives, as in '*The* more, *the* merrier' (see § 72. 4). It has (i) relative, (ii) demonstrative force: 'By *what* degree there are more, by *that* degree they are merrier', Latin '*Quo* plures, *eo* hilariores'.

## CONJUNCTIONS.

285 Conjunctions are either Co-ordinating or Subordinating (see § 14. 1-3).

286 **And** has a special syntactical force in certain uses :

(1) In cases like 'This cloth is nice and soft', the first adjective makes with the *and* an adverb-equivalent: 'nicely soft'. So with 'fine and . . .', 'lovely and . . .'.

(2) Preceding a pronoun qualified by an attribute it sometimes forms an equivalent of a nominative absolute (see § 61a. 4).

(3) 'Mind and write to me' = 'Mind (that) you write to me' (Noun-clause, §§ 69a. 3).

287 The use and history of **that** as a connective word with Temporal, Local, and other Conjunctions (*when that, if that, etc.*) have been treated in § 47.

Its omission at the head of Noun-clauses has been illustrated in §§ 68 foll. Formerly it was omitted much more freely and in cases where its omission would be now impossible or extremely awkward. Thus, in quoting *Genesis* ii. 18, Hooker (about 1600) writes: 'It is not good man should be alone'. This appeared subsequently in the 1611 Bible as 'It is not good *that* the man should be alone'. Clarendon has: 'And it may be it was well they had not'—a form hardly possible nowadays.

## PARATAXIS AND HYPOTAXIS.

288 These are two Greek words meaning 'arrangement alongside' and 'arrangement under' (*para* by the side of, *hypo* under, *taxis* arrangement: cf. *syntax*). They are, therefore, roughly equivalent to the Latin words *Co-ordination* and *Sub-ordination*, but, in, dealing with the history of sentence development, they are used in a wider sense than the Latin words, as will be shown in what follows.

289 In the earliest stages of language the connexion of two ideas which is necessary for the formation of a sentence, seems to have been first expressed by placing the words or sets of words denoting these ideas side by side, without the aid of a connecting link of any kind. Such a primitive form of sentence is exemplified in



'Much cry little wool', 'Like master like man', 'Borrow sorrow', 'One man one vote'. These are quite as much sentences as 'The man lives alone', 'Queen Anne is dead'. A sentence consists of two parts, a part naming something, and a part saying something about what is named (that is, the Subject and Predicate respectively). These two parts obviously exist in 'Much cry little wool'; what is said about 'much cry' is 'little wool': and so with the other sentences. If we attempt to amplify or paraphrase such sentences, we shall find that we do not arrive at any clearer statement of the meaning; rather we take away from the clearness and expressiveness of the original, if (for example) we paraphrase thus: 'Much cry means little wool', 'Where there is much cry there is little wool'. Many sentences of this kind are of a proverbial nature, and as such have come down to us in a fossilised form, but the power to frame such sentences still continues in the language; for example, 'One man one vote' (mentioned above), 'Every man his own lawyer', 'No sacrifice, no priest.'

**290** The form is frequent in exclamations and exclamatory questions (to which such simple forms of expression are particularly appropriate), e.g. 'He a coward?' 'Harry dead?' 'Jones a professor!'

The same principle is seen at work in children's attempts to express thought in sentence-form; e.g. a child may say 'Papa hat', meaning 'Papa has a hat on', 'Give papa his hat', or 'Here is your hat, papa'. So 'Tick-tock bell' for 'The clock is striking'.

Obs. 1.—In this connexion it is to be noticed that in languages where it is common to have no 'copula' in sentences containing a predicate of the 2nd Form (e.g. in Latin *omnia praeclara rara*) it is historically incorrect to say that the verb is omitted; *omnia praeclara sunt rara* simply belongs to a less primitive and more artificial stage of the language.

Obs. 2.—Parallels to the English *Borrow sorrow, More haste less speed*, are found in most languages: e.g., Latin, *summum ius summa iniuria*; French, *bon capitaine bon soldat, point d'argent point de Suisse, aussitôt dit aussitôt fait*; German, *Träume Schäume, heisse Bitte kalter Dank*.

**291** We have seen how the simple sentence arose by placing together two elements (words or groups of words) to express the connexion between two ideas in the mind of the speaker. The history of the complex sentence is exactly similar; it originated in the placing side by side of two simple sentences in some kind of logical order without any sort of connecting link. Consider, for example:

*He laughed. She cried.*  
*I was invited. I went.*  
*The battle was over. We found him dead.*  
*I came. I saw. I conquered.*

In each of these cases we have two or more statements placed side by side as independent sentences expressing ideas of equal importance. This is called *parataxis* or *paratactic construction*.

**292** If we wish to particularize the relation of such pairs of sentences to each other, we may do it in either of two ways:—

1. We may use a co-ordinating conjunction or a demonstrative adverb:

*He laughed* { *and*  
                  *but* } *she cried.*  
*I was invited, so I went.*

(Cf. 'Mind and go', which exists side by side with the subordinative construction 'Mind you go' = 'Mind that you go'.)

2. We may use a subordinating conjunction:

*I went when I was invited.*  
*If he laughed, she cried.*

In the first case the co-ordination of two sentences is made clearer by means of connecting words; in the second case the character of the construction is completely changed; in technical language *parataxis* has become *hypotaxis*. In §§ 295-300 will be given an outline of the process by which *parataxis* becomes *hypotaxis*.

**293** The following traces of formal *parataxis* may be seen in modern English:—

1. In sentences like *Here is somebody wants to see you* or *There is a devil haunts thee*, where it is usual to say that the relative 'that' is omitted. The original form was *Here is somebody | somebody wants to see you*; the repetition of 'somebody' is unnecessary, and so we get the sentence as it now stands. (Cf. § 64).

2. In sentences containing dependent statements, commands, or expressions of wish, such as the following, where it is usual to say that the conjunction 'that' is omitted:

*Every one thought the news was true.*  
*The news was true | Every one thought [so].*

*I wish I were a bird = Were I a bird ! | I wish.*

*Look thou be true = Be thou true—Look ! (= see to it).*

- 294 It is to be observed that, when two sentences are placed side by side in parataxis, one of them must necessarily be subordinated in thought to the other. Therefore, in every instance of parataxis there is virtual, though not formal, hypotaxis. Thus, a sentence of command, question, wish, or concession may be equivalent to a subordinative clause of condition, etc. (cf. §§ 43 Obs., 57b):

Go and see for yourself. You will find that I am right.

[ = If you go and see for yourself . . . ]

Do you think so? Then act accordingly.

[ = If you think so . . . ]

Compare the proverbs:—

*Fast find, fast bind* = when you have found something, make sure your possession of it; *Waste not, want not* = if you waste not, you shall not want.

- 295 The first stage in the progress from hypotaxis to parataxis is the correlation of two paratactic sentences.

This may be done by placing a demonstrative word in one of the sentences, which serves to resume the other or a part of it.

- 296 1. Sometimes the demonstrative refers to the preceding sentence as a whole:

He has gone | I tell you *that*.

This has become: I tell you *that* he has gone.

As a result of the hypotactical combination of the two sentences, *that* has lost its demonstrative emphasis and become a mere conjunction having little meaning of its own, and forming simply a connecting-link; and 'that he has gone' has degenerated into a noun-equivalent, the object of the verb 'see'.

Such is the origin of noun-clauses introduced by *that* (§ 66 A).

2. Sometimes the demonstrative refers to a part only of the preceding sentence:

John is the name | My parents gave me *that*.

Hence: John is the name *that* my parents gave me.

Here the originally emphatic demonstrative *that* has become an unemphatic relative, and the whole of the second sentence has become an adjective-equivalent qualifying 'name'.

Such is the origin of relative clauses introduced by *that* (§ 63 c a). For those introduced by *who*, etc. see § 298 Obs.

297 Again, we may make correlation by placing the same demonstrative word in each sentence. No trace of this has survived except in a disguised form.

In Old English and Middle English we find sentences of this form : \* *Then* it was six o'clock, *then* I got up. For example :

O.E. *Th̄ær* th̄in goldhord is, *th̄ær* is th̄in heorte (= *literally*, There thy goldboard is, there is thy heart. The 1611 Bible has : ' *Where* thy treasure is, *there* will thy heart be also'.)

M.E. *Ther* he is, *ther* wold I be. [*wold*=would.]

In O.E. most relative clauses were of this type, both members of the sentence containing correlative demonstratives, which were often of identical form, e.g. *se . . se*, *that . . that*, *se . . (se) the*. The type survived in the early mod. E. *that that* = 'that which,' 'what.'

But in a sentence like 'You are *as* weak *as* he is strong' we have a remarkable instance of this original correlation, but in disguise. 'As' is historically = 'all so'. (O.E. *eall-swā*, *alswā*, became in M.E. *also*, *alse*, *ase* and *als*; and *ase*, *als* gave Mod. E. *as*.)

The above sentence when analysed, therefore, becomes :

* You are <i>all-so</i> weak	<div style="display: flex; flex-direction: column; align-items: center; justify-content: center;"> <div style="margin-bottom: 5px;"><i>all-so</i> he is strong</div> <div style="margin-bottom: 5px;">or</div> <div>he is <i>all-so</i> strong.</div> </div>
------------------------------	--

*So* is, of course, a demonstrative adverb; *all* is merely intensive = 'even':

\* You are *even so* weak | he is *even so* strong,

which is the primitive way of saying 'your weakness is equal to his strength' (or *vice-versa*).

The same analysis applies to :

A lion is not *so* strong *as* an elephant [is strong].

*As* the tree falls, *so* shall it lie,

but in these instances the *so* in one member of the sentence is strengthened by *all*, in the other it is not.

298 The next stage is that in which one of the demonstratives is supplanted by a relative, or, as we may say generally, a *wh*-word

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\* The asterisk placed in front of a sentence denotes a supposed or hypothetical form of sentence.

is substituted for a *th*-word, as *where* for *there*, *when* for *then*, *what* for *that*, etc.

*Where* the bee sucks, *there* suck I.

*Wheresoever* the carcass is, *thither* shall the eagles be gathered together.

*Whatsoever* ye shall ask in my name, *that* will I do.

OBS.—The history of the use of *wh*-words as introducing relative clauses is peculiar. The words in O.E. which did duty as relatives were properly demonstratives (see § 256). Originally one stood in each of the clauses; hence it was that there arose such combinations as *that that* = Mod. E. ‘that which’, ‘what.’ But in the 12th century we find that *wh*-words (*i.e.* Interrogatives) are beginning to take the place of the *th*-words in the relative clause; this arose first in the oblique cases and in dependence on prepositions, no doubt because the existing demonstrative-relatives could not be used as oblique cases without ambiguity, *the* being indeclinable, while *that* did not admit a preposition in front of it. The use of the *wh*-words was subsequently extended to the nominative.

299 The final stage is reached when the remaining demonstrative is dropped, and all traces of the original correlation disappear.

*When* she got there, the cupboard was bare.

(Instead of ‘*then* the cupboard was bare.’)

*What* I have written, I have written.

(For: ‘*What* I have written, *that* I have written.’)

300 NOTE.—The above is not intended to be an exhaustive account of sentence-development in the English language. A few broad principles only have been enunciated, which, although they cover considerable ground, will not explain every kind of clausal combination which can be met with.

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